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*We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications : and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.*

## NOTES OF THE WEEK.

The Unionist Free Traders will be wise, if they avoid putting forward Lord Cromer. For one thing it is not to their advantage to draw an answer from Mr. Balfour. It was natural, no doubt, that a tiny group should want to make the most of a big name ; but if they go on putting up Lord Cromer to make party speeches, they will not gain and Lord Cromer will lose. He has lost already. These speeches have not left him so big a figure as he was. One is rather shocked to come across a great name and then only the same old party business. We have tried honestly to find in Lord Cromer's speeches some fresh contribution to the fiscal controversy, something suggestive, something worth exceptional pondering, and really we can find nothing. Mr. Asquith had already said better everything Lord Cromer said. The only striking thing about Lord Cromer's speeches is the want of relation they disclose with England of to-day. Lord Cromer does not know that English people are not thinking exactly as they were in the heyday of the Manchester philosophy. His very phrases are archaic. We have the old fallacy of antithesis between the State and the people. Anything unassociated with the Government or municipality is done by "the people". A one-man company is the people ; the Charity Organisation Society is the people. But something to which everybody contributes by taxes is not the people.

Lord Cromer's allusions to old-age pensions are of the same family. He talks of the best working men wishing to be independent of assistance from the general body of taxpayers. No doubt they would wish to be, like anybody else. We should all like to be independent men. But they have no independence now. Independence, when the great majority of working men can hope to escape the workhouse as their last stage only by

death ! Does Lord Cromer really think that a self-respecting man is less humiliated by having to creep into the workhouse at the end than by receiving his fair share of general State insurance against old age ? He will have paid his contribution towards it, as will every other taxpayer. This sort of talk of independence is worse than fallacious—it is not honest : it is hypocritical. Mr. Asquith spoke more truly on the matter at Lancaster. Apparently he means to make a start—by instalments. If he can, none will be more glad than we. For us there is nothing of party in this question. Lord Cromer was much enamoured of the phrase "demoralisation" — not such a very brilliant phrase either—no system can be more demoralising than the present, when the poor man, self-respecting and loafer alike, knows that, whatever his efforts to save, it is a hundred to one he will end in the workhouse. If he keeps out it will be by the doles of some charity—and Lord Cromer calls that independence.

The Liberal leaders have found, after curious search, the very word to apply to cattle-driving. To speak or write of it as an outrage, even as an offence, might wound Nationalist susceptibilities. So they call it "reprehensible". That surely need not offend any Nationalist worth the name, for it is scarcely harsher than if one were to describe it as indiscreet or inadvisable. Lord Crewe, for one, thinks cattle-driving "reprehensible". But why is it even reprehensible ? We do no injustice to Liberals if we say that their objection to cattle-driving is mainly that it makes it difficult for the Government to carry out the "ameliorative policy" in Ireland. At any rate no Minister and no leading Liberal paper, so far as we have seen, lodges any other grave objection against it.

The truth is cattle-driving, apart from the damage and inconvenience it causes to the owners, is scandalous through its wanton cruelty. Thousands of the wretched beasts are driven till they are utterly footsore and fagged out. Everybody knows the harm a mischievous dog will do in less than half an hour to a herd of cattle in a meadow or common, and this of course is ten times worse. To pick out gingerly the mildest adjective in the whole vocabulary of condemnation to apply to this impish and absolutely cruel offence is carrying party "policy" too far. Unless we are much mistaken,

Liberals all over the country must be losing patience with their leaders and papers for condoning the thing. It is a pity some paper like the "Westminster" or the "Manchester Guardian" does not speak out straight in this matter. It would lose neither caste nor circulation.

Mr. Birrell would rather wish he had not taken up Mr. Matthias Bodkin; a dangerous tool, likely, it seems, to run into his hand, not, however, from any malice of its own, but by the wicked impulse of another. Could there be anything more delightful than Mr. Stephen Markham's affidavit objecting to Mr. Bodkin as a County Court judge, and challenging his right to sit? This labourer of Ennis disputes Mr. Bodkin's legal capacity, agreeing with Sinn Fein, which described Mr. Bodkin as "bare of law". There is grave doubt if Mr. Bodkin does satisfy the stringent qualifications required in a County Court judge in Ireland. He certainly was not a practising barrister when Mr. Birrell appointed him, and it seems to be a very long while since he did practise. Leader-writing for the "Freeman's Journal" is not an ideal training for the impartial administration of law. The labourer of Ennis succeeded in his application. More is to follow. How is Mr. Birrell to suppress this awkward labourer, or (is it?) Mr. Tim Healy behind him?

The case of the Irish Crown jewels is truly strange. The Ulster King at Arms resolutely declines to have anything to do with the inquiry, as the authorities will not allow the press to report the whole evidence. Yet the authorities are apparently determined to go on! It may well remind us of that great case about the tarts in "Alice in Wonderland". Meanwhile an air of profound suspicion appears to be breathed everywhere about the matter. A representative of the "Pall Mall Gazette" gives a delightful example. He saw a man watching him through a glass door, and a little later saw this detective carefully examining his blotting-pad to see what he had written. It is said that almost everybody is engaged in watching somebody else, though the nature of all these complicated suspicions is quite obscure.

We are glad that the Prime Minister's health has really improved, and that he is returning in good fettle. He has reached Paris on his way home, and the Suffragettes have been cleared out before his arrival. Probably no party leader during the last hundred years has been less hated than is the Prime Minister to-day. He is an amiable figure, and we all view him amiably enough at the moment. Whether it is good for a country to have at the head of its affairs—for long—such a pleasant, kindly gentleman, is another thing. Sir Henry scarcely seems, to supporter or opponent, to have the quality *ἡθικὴ πείρα* which we look for in a Prime Minister. He is too easy-going for that.

At Alnwick on Wednesday the Foreign Secretary made an important statement about the Navy. The "independence and the life" of the country depend on our keeping up a Navy able to resist a combination of Powers; and if certain foreign nations carry out the new and large programmes that have been outlined of late, we shall have to increase ours—this was the substance of what Sir Edward Grey said. And yet there are Liberals who are actually attacking the Government for not scoring a success for universal peace at the Hague. We must say it is somewhat hard to accuse the Government of a disarmament failure at a moment like this. What we can only call the inopportunities of the Hague Conference well may go down to history as its most curious feature.

On Wednesday enlistment into the militia ceased; and on Thursday enlistment into the new special reserve opened. Of the 124 battalions which composed the militia 23 are to disappear altogether. These are mostly weak battalions, which Mr. Haldane is quite justified in disbanding. But among them one or two are fine; and pressure is now being brought to bear on the War Secretary to spare them. Of the remaining 101 battalions 74 will become reserve behind the 69 infantry regiments of the line (148 battalions),

and 27 are to become extra reserve battalions. The Artillery and Engineer militia are also to become reserves to the Royal Artillery and Royal Engineers. Recruiting for the twenty-three doomed battalions will cease at once. But all the remaining militia battalions will carry out their annual training of twenty-six days as usual this summer; and on the completion of their trainings all militia units—with the exception of the medical corps, which are to be disbanded—will be converted into reserve units. Special reservists, unlike the militia, will be liable on mobilisation to serve abroad, and in consideration of this extra liability serving militiamen will, if they join the special reserve, receive a bonus of £2. The period of service will be six years; and on enlistment every man will receive an initial six months' training, with twenty-one days' yearly afterwards.

The effect on the efficiency of the military—provided men enough are obtained—and the number will probably remain very much at the present figure of the militia—need not be very noticeable. It is true that the annual training will be only twenty-one as against twenty-six days. But the six months on enlistment should equalise matters, at any rate as to the men. The liability to serve abroad again will make little practical difference. The old system was virtually compulsion. Men were paraded: and those who would not volunteer were asked to step to the front. Needless to say few had the hardihood to do so. The militia has always been used as a reserve to the line, and often denuded of the flower of its men in consequence. The main difference now is that this fact is openly acknowledged. In future the militia will be called part of the regular army, but mere change of name will not make them regulars; and this is especially the case with the officers. So on the whole we need not look for much change.

The weakest part of the scheme is the provision of depot staffs in times of great emergency. Depots as such are to cease to exist, and third or special reserve battalions are to take them over. But in a great crisis—as has always happened—third battalions, after having been denuded of their best men for the line, will be required for garrison duty in order to release line regiments for service in the field, for the twenty-seven extra reserve battalions will not be nearly enough for that purpose. Who then will "run" the depots, and train the recruits? Will not even greater chaos reign at those establishments than in 1899-1902? Sir John French a few days ago hailed Mr. Haldane's scheme as the work of a "great statesman". We hope he is right. But his words would have carried more conviction had we not heard him commend with almost equal fervour the several schemes which preceded Mr. Haldane's.

In his reply to the memorial of the busybodies who are prepared to regard Dinizulu as an injured innocent and the Natal Government as native oppressors the Prime Minister is benevolently neutral. The Imperial Government see no grounds for interference, especially as they have already put their views before the Natal authorities. Precisely what those views are we shall not know till the papers are produced. Of course Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and his colleagues object to the proclamation of martial law when the ordinary law would serve the purpose of maintaining peace and order—who does not?—but they are not prepared to offer "either justification or apology" for a measure which the Colonial Government thought necessary for security. Possibly, with Ireland in his mind, Sir Henry would feel himself on thin ice in dealing with this point. Nor can he be a party to advising the King "to signify his disallowance of an act of indemnity after it has received the approval of such a Colony as Natal". Our Government is "dead off" conflicts with colonies, evidently.

Canada and Japan have come to a sensible understanding as to Japanese immigration into Canada. There is nothing in writing, but the Japanese authorities have made emigration rules which Mr. Lemieux, the Canadian commissioner, and his Government are satisfied



with. The Canadian Government is prohibiting strangers from landing unless they have come straight from their country of origin. One may hope the difficulty in Canada is laid, at any rate for the present. In the Transvaal things go from bad to worse. Many of the Indians have been imprisoned, including Mr. Gandhi. This is a sore that time is likely to enflame rather than heal. The white population is daily confirming itself by meetings and demonstrations in its policy of persecution. The labour organisations are appealing to their brothers here for sympathy with their anti-Asiatic fury.

Mulai Hafid has been proclaimed Sultan of Morocco by Fez malcontents who object to the European methods of Abd-el-Aziz, and General d'Amade has superseded General Drude in the command of the French forces at Casablanca. The immediate effect on Abd-el-Aziz of Mulai Hafid's recognition by the capital has been to make him lean more than ever on the European element, and the French have moved forward to his support within a short distance of Rabat. Whilst Mulai Hafid and his advisers are said to have started a holy war in order to destroy European influence, it is intimated that European interests will be respected. Abd-el-Aziz on his part is credited with the intention of making a further strategic movement to the rear; he will probably retire this time to Tangier. One thing is clear; but for French support his career as Sultan would be at an end. France is now in a greater difficulty than ever with her Moorish policy—largely the result of her own dilatory methods. Of course there are the usual rumours that Germany is prepared to fish in troubled waters.

The demonstrations in Berlin in support of the franchise resolution in the Prussian Chamber, or Abgeordnetenhaus, got as far as rioting; there were many broken heads but no loss of life, though several shots were fired. Prince Bülow, speaking for the Prussian Ministry, refused to introduce a measure providing for universal suffrage, the ballot, and redistribution of seats; but hinted at possible alterations which might be made without fundamentally affecting the present system. The Radicals, who are supposed to act with the Government bloc in the Reichstag, were the authors of the franchise resolution, and the Centre supported them on most points. There are no Socialists in the Prussian Chamber, and as they want to be there they are really the chief promoters of the movement generally and of the demonstrations which made Berlin so lively for a couple of days. Maybe the rebuff to the Radicals by Prince Bülow will have the effect of uniting the Radicals, the Centre, and the Socialists in opposition to the Government in the Reichstag. The National Liberals joined with the Right in voting for the rejection of the resolution in the Prussian Chamber.

M. Schollaert, the new Belgian Premier, is adopting a conciliatory attitude towards the critics of his predecessor's proposals for the annexation of the Congo State. When the Chamber reassembled on Tuesday, he said that the Government were determined to proceed with the annexation, but, recognising the force of some of the objections which had been advanced, they were prepared to suggest certain modifications. He gave no hint whether those modifications were intended to meet the points raised by the Belgians themselves or those insisted on in England and elsewhere. He is clearly anxious that the question should not be one of party, and in that, judging by the tenour of the discussion, he is supported by the Chamber.

It is still uncertain what the result of the cotton trade dispute will be. If the employers generally agree to close their mills, an immense number of operatives will be dismissed; and some of the mills will be closed before the end of the month in consequence of notices already given unless the dispute is in the meantime settled. Perhaps the bulk of employers are against the lock-out on a large scale; but there are differences of opinion whether or not the present is a favourable moment from the point of view of trade for such a stoppage of work. The doubt whether the section of the men known as ring spinners are bound as to wages by the terms of the Brooklands agreement appears not to be capable of settlement. The only hope is in

the arrangement of some compromise. Mr. Lloyd George states that the Board of Trade is in communication with both parties, and that, though the danger must not be assumed to be over, the prospects of a settlement are favourable. As to the London Road Car strike, the only thing now to be said of it is that it is over, the men having accepted the company's terms.

Several interesting cases have been decided or advanced this week. First, there seems a possibility, almost a probability, that the Thaw trial, after all, will not be of unreasonable length—for America. The opening speeches for the prosecution and defence were very brief; and both sides appear to know their line much more certainly than on the first trial. The defence has been leading evidence of the family history of Thaw as to insanity and as to Thaw's own irrational conduct at various periods of his life from boyhood up to the period immediately preceding the murder. All this is relevant and intelligible to a sound defence on the issue of insanity, and has not the air of absurdity of the evidence on the first trial. If the only real logical defence is continued without irrelevancy, there need be no repetition of the nauseous story of the relations of Thaw's wife with Stanford White. If it is to show they drove Thaw insane, it is a doubtful and dangerous plea; if to justify the murder even in the States, where the rate of murders is increasing more rapidly than the rate of population, this cannot be a valid legal defence.

Whatever may be the real name of the man whom Mr. Solomon Barnato Joel accuses of threatening to murder him, with the intention of obtaining money from him, he is the man who was tried for the murder of Mr. Joel's brother, Mr. Woolf Joel, in South Africa shortly before the war and was acquitted. It is dramatic that Mr. Solomon Joel should now accuse Von Veltheim of threatening to murder him and in his presence declare that he murdered his brother. No evidence has been led for the defence, and Von Veltheim has been committed for trial. It may be gathered from cross-examination however that the defence will be that the alleged menacing letter sent to Mr. Joel was only an ordinary claim for moneys said to be due, and put at £16,000, for services rendered to the Joel family in South Africa. These services are asserted to have been of a secret nature, partly in connexion with politics and partly with business in South Africa.

The case of M. Lemoine, who claims that he can make artificial diamonds, is the new mystery which takes the place of the Druce, now no more. He persuaded Sir Julius Wernher into parting with £60,000, and now Sir Julius charges him with fraud. M. Poitevin, the juge d'instruction, believes that if he could inspect a certain chemical formula which has been deposited in a bank in London he would have the clue to the affair. M. Lemoine forbids the bank parting with it, as disclosure would, he says, expose his secret and ruin him; and there seems no legal process to get at the document. M. Lemoine has many believers in his claims; of good position and scientific knowledge. Lord Armstrong is one of these, and he asserts that he has seen diamonds made by M. Lemoine in circumstances absolutely convincing. If M. Lemoine convinces M. Poitevin that he has gone a step beyond M. Moissan, who without doubt made diamonds, though not commercially profitable, shareholders in De Beers and many other people will begin to feel uncomfortable and to wish that M. Lemoine had devoted his talents to aeroplanes.

In the Gilbey pheasant-egg case the judges have upheld Mr. Justice Grantham's decision. So that according to law it is just as much larceny to take pheasants' eggs from a man's preserves as to take hens' eggs from his poultry run. The old idea was that the pheasants were *feræ naturæ*, and so it would not be larceny to take their eggs, although it was an offence under the game laws. We cannot honestly say we see much difference between the wrong in taking a man's farmyard hens or hens' eggs and in taking his pheasants or pheasants' eggs; though, admittedly, there is a certain poetry about

poaching which does not attach to the habit of rifling the poultry yard. Many good men have poached—just a little—in their youth for the love of a bit of risky sport; and the hard-bitten village poacher has even been turned in some cases into a first-class gamekeeper. But the offenders in this particular case clearly belonged to a different class, and they were rightly punished.

Mr. Farman won the Deutsch-Archdeacon prize of £2,000 on Monday with his flying machine. He covered the circular course of a kilometre, rising in the air and returning to the ground without mishap or difficulty. Thus the brothers Wright will have a very strong rival for the aeronautic prizes here. None of the accounts we have seen say anything about the state of the air at the time, so it is uncertain what Mr. Farman can or cannot do against a strong wind. The word "aviation" applied to such feats is absolutely bad, for—save that both are heavier than the air—birds and these flying machines seem to have little in common. In natural flight the body by its own momentum does much of the work. Moreover the flying machine does not attack the air in the same way as wings attack it. The expression "conquest of the air" is also ill applied to these feats, brilliant and interesting though they be. It can scarcely be said that man has subdued the sea yet—how much less the air!

The Barnsley accident, and the other a few hours after at a small town in America, were due to holding entertainments in buildings unsuitable for the purpose. At Barnsley the adults in charge of the children ought to have foreseen the possibilities of the staircase being crowded, and to have devised some protection. In the American case the building was totally unfit for a performance in which the risk from fire was so great. Public entertainments ought to be allowed only in buildings that have been previously inspected and licensed. In Paris the ice accident was not due to want of precautions but to the brainless recklessness of youths who actually climbed over the ropes marking off an area of the ice that was unsafe.

We observe that the "Westminster Gazette", commenting on our article last week, "The Appeal to the Parent", makes the mistake of taking conclusions of our own for the formal policy of the Parents' League. We quoted certain fundamental propositions as the basis of the League's work, and they are its basis. The essential thing is that the parent shall have the power to determine what religious teaching shall be given to his child in all schools. From that proposition we deduced that ultimately all schools will have to become State schools, denominational teaching being allowed in them by the State, as the parents desire. We do not believe that any other settlement will stand; and we believe that once the essential policy of the Parents' League begins to work, mere logic of facts will compel the result we forecast. It is much better that Churchmen should take long views and see the end of what they are doing. But the League is not necessarily committed to our conclusions. We are aware of that, and we did not say it was. All we do say, or did, is that the lines on which it avowedly proposes to work will lead to that result.

The "Westminster" can see no difference between providing Church worship and providing Church teaching. Very well. In the Army and Navy, the Prisons and Reformatories and Truant-schools, the State does provide denominational worship and chaplains on the very plan we advocate. Services are not wanted in schools, but teaching is; and we are entitled to ask why public money should go to teaching a political compromise we are expected to accept as undenominational religion, and not to the teaching of the different denominations' views of religion, all on an equal basis. But "provision" is the "Westminster's" word, not ours. We speak of allowing. We require that the State shall leave every man free to have his children taught according to his own way of worshipping God. Whether the State or other agencies shall pay the cost is a different question. The freedom of choice is what we insist on and what Liberals deny.

#### THE PRUSSIAN FRANCHISE AGITATION.

PRUSSIA rather suddenly has broken out into popular demonstrations in support of an agitation for an alteration or reform of the electoral system. On Friday and Sunday there were collisions between the populace and the police in Berlin; but apparently the good sense and good humour of both carried them safely without disaster through a very dangerous situation. There were some casualties, but no loss of life. The occasion was a resolution in the Second Chamber of the Landtag by the Radical deputies to replace the present system of voting for the Chamber by one of universal suffrage, voting by ballot, and a redistribution of seats. Prince Bülow, who as Chancellor is President of the Prussian Ministry, made a statement to the effect that the Ministry does not intend to introduce any measure which would make substantial alterations in the present system, and the Chamber rejected the resolution. Some modification will be made, not, as the Radicals and Socialists desire, to give the preponderant voting power to the working classes; but rather to strengthen the lower middle-class vote compared with those classes on the one hand and the wealthier classes on the other. At present the electorate is divided into three classes on the basis of taxation. The electors who pay one-third of the taxation on the highest assessments have one-third of the voting power; those who pay one-third on the next grade of assessment have also one-third of the voting power; the other electors paying taxes in the lowest grade have also a third of the voting power. This form of franchise has been established since 1848, and in the natural course of things some changes must be required. The Government does not deny this; and Prince Bülow stated that they had been considering the question for some time, and there were certain regulations which were in urgent need of reform. But at the same time he declared that the Government is convinced that the introduction of the Reichstag system of elections, which the Radicals and Socialists are aiming at, would not be compatible with the welfare of the State.

The present system is evidently what the Greeks would have called a timocracy. There is no class distinction about it, privilege of birth or anything of that kind. Every man takes his place according to his wealth; and the smaller number of wealthy is equal to either of the other two more numerous but less wealthy. Thus is excited not only the envy of the lowest-rated classes but of the middle-rated classes, who, though they have more sympathy with the class above than with the class below, as happens also in England, yet dislike mere wealth having privileges over themselves; that is, that a less numerous body should have equal power. We may suppose that they consider themselves equally intelligent, serious, solid citizens. They do not tend naturally to radicalism or socialism; and indeed Prince Bülow in the Chamber called them in effect the backbone of Germany. What the Prince seems to be contemplating is some readjustment of the relations between the classes which will reduce the preponderance of wealth whilst still retaining taxation as a basis. Or, he intimates, other bases may be found for the franchise according to the age, property and educational attainments or other attributes of the voter. This would be a modification of the timocratic principle for the electorate of the Chamber similar to the modification of the aristocratic and hereditary principle in the Herrenhaus by the life peers chosen by the King from rich landowners, great manufacturers and national celebrities, representatives of the universities, burgo-masters and others.

Whether a "firm foundation", as Prince Bülow called it, may be found for such a modification of the electorate depends upon domestic conditions and expediencies as to which the Prussian Government will have to judge and determine. Foreigners certainly cannot affect to criticise them except upon some a priori principle as to a right to the franchise, which is ridiculously doctrinaire and a dangerous absurdity when applied to all varieties of national cases. Those who imagine that the Prussian system is condemned by the imperial electoral system do not know,



or they forget, that direct voting, universal suffrage and the ballot was not a matter of choice or even expediency with Bismarck, but an actual necessity under the conditions. Every State was left to fix its own electoral laws, and if Bavaria has a system like the imperial, Saxony has a system essentially the same as the Prussian. It may be said that Austria has introduced universal suffrage, and that Hungary appears to be on the point of doing so; and that this is a sufficient proof that the demand of a like franchise in Prussia ought to be granted, and that its refusal is a tyrannical denial of the rights of the people. This is a very barren argument. Questions of the franchise have never been treated either in this or any other country as matters of abstract right. The policy of fear or expediency always determines them. There seems to come a time in the history of every country when hitherto politically powerless classes have to be admitted into the political system. They have forced things to the "razor's edge of fortune" whether it is more dangerous that they should be kept out or let in. We certainly do not pretend to know, and we are pretty sure no foreigner can judge, whether this point has been reached or not in Prussia.

The policy of every nation has always been to put off the danger of making new arrangements of political power between different classes to the very last moment. Only the practical sagacity of the statesmen who guide the State and who know all the conditions can decide when the moment has come for taking what is always a leap in the dark. It must be so with Prussian statesmen in the situation in which they are now placed, and it is only an ignorant and cocksure radicalism which will pretend to criticise and condemn them on an abstract theory of the political rights of the people. It may seem that the conditions in Prussia have become similar to what they were in England when the growth of large industrial towns brought forward first the middle classes and then the working classes into competition for political power. But in fact the Prussian system is not so absolutely exclusive as was our own. All the classes are inside the political system and have some share of power. The industrial towns and people are not disfranchised. This fact makes a broad comparison and contrast impossible. The struggle in Prussia is for a rearrangement of power between the working classes and the middle classes, both already being voters. We believe the middle classes in England are likely to misunderstand this; and we do not suppose they so heartily approve of the growing power of the working classes in England over the middle classes that they will have much sympathy to spare for the Radicals and Socialists in Prussia who are attempting to make the working classes predominant there as they are in England. The Radicals have made the proposal and for the moment they are nominally part of Prince Bülow's bloc in the Reichstag: but the Socialists would reap most of the advantage; and Prince Bülow's imperial programme was an appeal against socialism. How can he consent to an alteration of the electoral laws in Prussia which is intended to increase the fighting strength of socialism? The objective of all the efforts of those who are supporting the Prussian franchise movement is not merely to secure a better representation of the working classes but to revolutionise the Constitution. They are aiming at the control of administration and legislation by Ministries responsible to parliamentary majorities both in the Reichstag and the Landtag. English politicians who lecture Prince Bülow on "refusing the people a voice in the management of their own affairs" are simply using a stale formula of British politics without intelligence. This is not a vice of German politics nearly so much as it is of ours, simply because the real government of the country is not so completely in the hands of party politicians. The larger powers of the German and Prussian Sovereigns, their appointment of Ministers who hold power from them and not from a Parliament returned on every fluctuating and fleeting cry that catches the ear of a gross mass of electors, enable the Government to act on a steady ideal of the welfare of the country as it exists in the minds of sagacious statesmen.

#### THE EDUCATION OF MR. LLOYD GEORGE.

MR. LLOYD GEORGE is bent on proving to us how far we have travelled from the paths of the old Cobdenism and how certain is the final overthrow of doctrines which are the negation of imperialism. Cobden welcomed "the indirect process of Free Trade" as the most effectual means of "gradually and imperceptibly loosening the bonds which unite our colonies to us by a mistaken notion of self-interest", and the two latest Blue-books to reach us from Mr. Lloyd George's department prove how unquestionably right Cobden was. Free Trade is cosmopolitan not imperial—the world is its unit not the Empire; its natural outcome is the gradual separation of all the colonies from England under the influence of world-wide economic forces. Like other civilised nations the colonies refuse to take their economics from us, and instead of girding at them in the lofty tone of a philosopher as was the manner of Mr. Asquith at the Imperial Conference, Mr. Lloyd George has the good sense to accept facts and make the best of them. Realising with colonial statesmen the natural disintegrating effects of Cobdenism, he abandons the British attitude of laissez-faire and sets himself to co-operate with them in doing what no bona fide Cobdenite ought to do—namely, stimulate British trade with the colonies rather than with foreign countries, believing, as no Cobdenite ought to believe, that "the Empire will be a great gainer thereby". He sends Mr. Jeffray as Special Trade Commissioner to New Zealand and Mr. Richard Grigg to Canada, and out of the mouths of both these official witnesses we now get a justification of the warnings with which Mr. Chamberlain startled the world four years ago, and a justification also of the policy of inter-imperial co-operation by which the Empire may be knit more closely together.

The progressive nature of the disintegration under Free Trade is clearly indicated in these Board of Trade reports and in the searching and not less impartial investigations of the Tariff Commission by which they seem to have been largely inspired, and without which no clear understanding of the empire trade problem is possible. We are shown how as the colonies make progress in national and industrial status, their foreign trade associations tend to increase at the expense of the United Kingdom. Industrially Canada may be regarded as the oldest colony, and the disintegrating influences are most marked in the Canadian market. In the lifetime of many living men Canada relied upon the United Kingdom for one-half of her imported manufactures; Mr. Grigg records again and again with almost painful reiteration how this British share has diminished year after year before United States and in a lesser degree German and other foreign attack, and the Tariff Commission brings out the tendency still more clearly by showing that while the British share of the Canadian import market has in twenty years fallen from 40 to 24 per cent. of the whole, the foreign share has increased from 57 to 71 per cent. But more significant even than what Mr. Grigg or the Tariff Commission say is the admirable addendum made to the Board of Trade report by Mr. John Bain, formerly Deputy Commissioner of Canadian Customs. Mr. Bain has long been the man at the helm in Canada; he speaks of what he knows by daily contact, and he speaks of the decline in British trade before foreign competition as "really very serious, much more so than Englishmen realised". He adds: "I venture to assert in the strongest way that if such preference had not been granted, British trade with Canada would be on a very small basis to-day." He analyses what he calls the competitive Canadian imports, that is to say, those in which we compete with the United States, and shows that between 1888 and 1897 the British decline of 10½ million dollars compared with a United States increase of only 3½ million dollars; while since Preference, that is to say between 1898 and 1906, a British increase of 31½ million dollars compares with a United States increase of 46½ million dollars. For a detailed survey of the trade position in Australia we are dependent upon the recently published investigations of the Tariff Commission, and these show how steadily

the British share of the Australian import market has diminished. In the three years ending 1896 it was 70 per cent. of the whole; in the three years ending 1906 the 70 per cent. fell to 60 per cent. Simultaneously the United States and German share rose from 16 to 26 per cent. of the whole. In New Zealand we still hold what Mr. Jeffray in his report to the Board of Trade calls "an overwhelming pre-eminence". Yet comparing the four years ending 1894 with the four years ending 1906 we see how substantially Germany, Japan, Belgium and the United States increased their shares. Their imports have quadrupled while ours have doubled; and from Mr. Lloyd George's emissary comes the admission that we have chiefly to thank the New Zealand preference for the fact that British iron bars can now be landed in New Zealand at less cost than Belgian, and that other British metal goods and British boots and shoes now take the place of United States and other foreign imports. The South African position has been much complicated by the trade disturbance occasioned by the war, but a Tariff Commission is now investigating industrial conditions, and we shall doubtless find that the disintegrating forces at work are not less marked there than in Canada and Australasia.

All this must be painful reading for Mr. Asquith. He assured colonial Ministers in 1907 that tariffs could not exclude British goods from colonial markets where these goods were wanted. No power on earth, he grandiloquently declared, could do such a thing. The emissaries of his Cabinet colleague, Mr. Lloyd George, show him how it has been done in an ever-increasing degree. Despite Mr. Asquith's aphorisms the colonies did look less and less to British, and more and more to foreign, sources of supply. The value of colonial imports from foreign countries rose in the last ten years from 81 to 126 millions sterling. Equally disconcerting to Mr. Asquith must it be to find these commissioners of his own Government proclaiming that the very colonial preferences which he exhausted his ingenuity in belittling have proved invaluable in stemming the tide of British decline. Mr. Grigg, perhaps out of consideration for his principals in the British Government, tries to cover up his convictions by a plenitude of words and qualifying phrases that sound well while meaning little. He repeats the familiar jargon about British "slowness" and want of adaptability, and it may be a good thing that he should himself be established in Canada at the head of a dozen or so "commercial correspondents" paid by the British taxpayer. But he cannot escape the conclusion that the preference has been of "undoubted value to British imports", and that it has "to a considerable degree checked the previous decline in the hold of the British manufacturer upon the Canadian market". Mr. Commissioner Bain, having no British party susceptibilities to bother about, asserts frankly and "in the strongest way" that the preference has saved British trade in Canada from the practical extinction by which it was threatened by the geographical and other advantages of the United States and the economic advantages of Germany and other foreign countries. "The preference", he says, "undoubtedly accomplished the purpose for which it was intended, and it not only arrested the decline in British trade, but gave it a very healthy impetus." Mr. Jeffray is hardly less emphatic. His inquiries in New Zealand, as well as in this country, convince him that "the effect of the preferential arrangements (in New Zealand) has been to divert to the United Kingdom and the British possessions a portion of the trade formerly held by foreign countries in commodities affected by the preference".

But Mr. Lloyd George's commissioners do not stop there. Mr. Grigg echoes the warning so frequently uttered in this REVIEW of the danger to which our colonial trade is exposed in the absence of imperial reciprocity. "Helpful" as the Canadian preference has proved, it is, he says, "insufficient by itself to do more than check the decline in the United Kingdom's share of Canadian trade". Following the lines of the investigations of the Tariff Commission, though he fails to acknowledge his indebtedness, Mr. Grigg indicates how large a part of the Canadian import

trade is affected by the inadequacy of the preference. He sets out the "goods in regard to which British manufacturers have to encounter from foreign countries an energetic competition which has already or is fast obtaining a preponderance", and again another group of "goods in regard to which British trade has either been entirely defeated by foreign competition or retains only a small and relatively insignificant share of the market". These are the goods on which Canada desires to enlarge her preference in return for concessions in the British tariff. The exhaustive survey of the Tariff Commission shows that in Australia and New Zealand there are hardly less important concessions which we can have for the asking. As Sir Joseph Ward reminded the Imperial Conference, our trade with continental countries has probably reached its limit, but there await us, if we will only seize the opportunity, enormous possibilities of expansion in these growing self-governing States of the Empire. "Our trade relations are material to us all", said the New Zealand Prime Minister, "our attachment and destiny are on mutual lines, and we should try and shape a policy which we believe to be safe and beneficial for ourselves". The door will not always remain open. Mr. Grigg warns us, and this week's debate in the Canadian Parliament on the Franco-Canadian treaty gives new point to his warning, that we are driving the colonies to look elsewhere for intimate trade associations. The Canadian Intermediate duties are now being granted to France and to the twenty most-favoured nations, including Japan, with whom we and France compete in the Canadian market. The margin of preference is thereby reduced on some goods from 12½ to 2½ per cent., and, as Mr. Grigg says, the extension of these conventional rates to goods in which Germany competes must "be fraught with undoubtedly serious consequences to British trade". We may stand still, if we like, and declare proudly that "not a single pennyworth of preference shall be granted on a single peppercorn", but meanwhile great economic forces are at work, and, as Dr. Jameson said at the Conference, "when once you begin to make treaties outside [the Empire] there is no saying how far they may go. When you once get commercial treaties and commercial sympathy, you generally find political sympathy follows". If we do not want this, we cannot too soon fling wide the door which our Ministers so boastfully "slammed" six months ago.

#### THE MOORISH MUDDLE—ANOTHER TOUCH.

THE proclamation of Mulai Hafid at Fez has suddenly transformed the situation in Morocco. Whether they like it or not, the various interested parties will now be compelled to reconsider their position. Every wise politician will probably spin out the process of revision to the utmost, and we should not be surprised to hear proposals for another Conference at Algieras, if only as an expedient to gain a great deal of time. The Convention undoubtedly requires revision in view of recent events. The Powers committed themselves at Algieras to "the principle of the sovereignty and independence of His Majesty the Sultan and the integrity of his dominions". But there is now room for argument whether the Sultan in question is still Abd el Aziz even after his deposition by the Moors, or whether the guarantee should not be transferred to the de facto Sultan, if he succeeded in establishing his authority.

For our part we are less concerned with the struggles and rivalries of Sultans, pretenders, or other brigands of various degree than we are with Morocco as a factor in the future of European Powers. Events have certainly justified the misgivings with which we regarded the mandate given to France at Algieras. It is true that the mandate was only a very little one. She was merely to organise a Moorish police for the protection of European trade and traders in the coast towns. But this was either too much or too little. It was not even done thoroughly. The bombardment of Casablanca and a few timid military promenades near the seashore were not calculated to overawe, but rather to exasperate and consolidate, turbulent Moors. Moreover the support



bestowed upon so weak and unpatriotic a sovereign as Abd el Aziz not only sealed his doom, but also that of French influence in the empire. France is now confronted by the dilemma of either withdrawing from her engagements on the coast, and thereby sacrificing her prestige in North Africa, or of embarking upon a great war of conquest, which might last for generations, and would certainly impair her strength as a military nation. We do not imagine that the French will undertake any such daring enterprise, at any rate so long as M. Clémenceau remains at the helm. As he remarked to an Austrian journalist the other day, "I overthrew Jules Ferry eighteen years ago, but not in order to adopt his policy now. I have not written twelve hundred articles against war with Morocco in order to make war upon Morocco myself. It would be less difficult to enter Morocco than to get out again".

It is true that the Moors do not possess the weapons or the organisation or the peculiar qualities which enabled the Boers to maintain an obstinate guerilla warfare in South Africa, but they might prove scarcely less illusive and pugnacious among the natural strongholds of their own native mountains. It may be objected that the Moors possess no great standing army and could only harass their enemies by incessant forays, but this would be a source of strength as well as of weakness, for the invaders could never strike a decisive blow or retaliate upon their mobile tormentors. Moreover the echoes of a holy war would reverberate throughout other French provinces where Mohammedan susceptibilities are tender.

It must also be remembered that the French would have to reckon with other Powers besides Morocco. The Algeiras mandate was the result of a compromise and another Conference would be necessary in order to authorise further action. Maybe, if the Germans consulted their own best interests, they would encourage France to enter a path which might bring her to grief. But they have so long cast envious eyes in the direction of Morocco that they might, and very probably would, insist upon taking their share in a great war. It is noticeable that nations, like individual soldiers, experience a craving to join in the fun when any fighting is in the air. Some such impulse must have inspired the Spaniards to seek a share in the thankless task of patrolling Moorish ports. The result has not been satisfactory either as a martial exploit or in improving Franco-Spanish relations. But Spain undoubtedly felt that her traditions as well as her future possibilities entitled her to a finger in the Moorish pie. After all, she argued, no other European nation can recall the same intimate relations as hers have been with the people who overran her and then were driven out, leaving behind them a racial impress and a noble artistic heritage. And, apart from any fighting instinct, Germany would also be impelled by her Oriental policy to play a part in Morocco.

We have observed with interest recent negotiations between certain Moors and the Sultan of Turkey for friendly co-operation in the interests of Islam. This is all the more significant because the German Emperor has become the protector of Turkey, who is expected to assist his commercial plans on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean. If one or other of these two Powers, France and Germany, is to be entrusted with the work of pacification, we should prefer the lot to fall upon Germany. She would certainly do her work more thoroughly than France, which has again and again proved herself incapable of carrying out the simplest effort of colonisation. We do not share the views of hysterical persons who are forever sounding alarms against Germany, nor do we trust the continuity of French politics enough to acquiesce in the Mediterranean becoming a French lake. Our presence at Gibraltar, our ancient relations with Tangier, our position as the chief Mohammedan Power, all entitle us to insist upon a large share in the settlement of Morocco. We trust therefore that, when the time comes, the Foreign Office may be alive to its responsibilities.

#### CHARITY IN BULK.

THE series of articles on "Administration of Charity" which has been appearing in the "Times" ended on Monday with what their author terms "a scheme". It is well known among people interested in charitable matters that these articles are the outcome of thought and experience, not of any individual, but of an influential section of those engaged in alleviating all kinds of distress. The suggested scheme, which relates to London only, comes out presumably with the same imprimatur. With the warning that it is necessary for the administrators of charities to exercise careful discrimination and economy we are naturally in complete agreement, and any kind of sensible co-operation and co-ordination must tend to work in such a direction. It is essential, however, to bear in mind that no scheme of central control can be regarded as final until the question of what the effect would be on the sources of charitable contributions has been carefully considered. The writer of the articles mentions three societies which are to some extent carrying out those methods of co-operation in administration which he desires to see widely extended. These are the Charity Organisation Society, King Edward's Hospital Fund, and the City Council for the Organisation of Charity. The Charity Organisation Society has been termed occasionally the unofficial relieving officer, and with reason. Its main object is to prevent imposture, with the result that before relief is given a considerable sum of money is spent in discovering whether it is desirable; the poor, and by that we mean the honest poor, regard its methods as inquisitorial, and the more deserving they are the more they shrink from what to their minds is almost "going on the rates". Any scheme of general administration which followed at all closely Charity Organisation methods would rapidly tend to become an engine for the distribution of unofficial poor relief, and to that extent ease the ratepayers of a burden which it is their duty to bear. Moreover it would also make much more difficult the discovery of those sad cases of silent deserving poverty. From King Edward's Hospital Fund little aid can be got other than the warning that special methods when applied generally are often dangerous. In the hospital world the King's Fund has been of great value, and many reforms have been carried out by its agency. But its inception, its government, and its sources of income are such as make it impossible as a general precedent. The undoubted success attained is essentially due to personal and social considerations. Founded by the King, nursed with care and skill by the Prince of Wales, it has attracted to its carefully published list of subscriptions names from every rank of London society. Would the fund be so large if Royal interest were removed, and the only subscription acknowledgment a formal receipt through the halfpenny post? Hospital governors know too well the answer, and that is why they are so grateful to the King and the Prince of Wales for all they have done and are doing. It is good to hear that the City Council for the Organisation of Charity is doing well, but we take leave to think that success is due to the fact that its action is confined to the City. Its members are well known to one another, they are intimately connected in trade, business and City Company work, and probably often meet on different charitable boards; their area is restricted, and they are in that kind of close touch with one another which enables informal chats to do more in ten minutes than all the solemn resolutions of a central board would achieve in a twelvemonth.

The most serious objection to the proposed scheme is its probable effect on the contributions of the charitable world. In passing, too, we should like to know what would qualify for membership. Must all our subscriptions go through the central fund? or is our qualification merely a pious opinion in general theoretical principles, leaving us the actual distribution of our charity in accordance with the Association's text-book? While there are many people who give regularly out of their abundance, the moving spirit in most of us is a feeling of personal pity for misfortune, and our pity finds practical expression because we have come either

into personal contact with its object or some of our friends have told us a moving story of their experiences and begged for our help. We are directly interested. We want to know how "our" case, "our" home, or "our" emigrant has turned out. Should we be as interested if we sent two or three guineas to a central association which distributed its funds certainly to deserving institutions, but possibly quite unknown to us? Our personal interest would be gone. It is only one step further to regard the central association as an unofficial poor-law system. From that to putting all charity, including hospitals, on the rates is a still shorter step, for it matters little whether poor rates be paid by way of an impersonal annual cheque or in response to a half-yearly demand note. Reasoned charity is one of the bulwarks against the attacks of revolutionary socialism; we must have a care that we do not so alter our charitable administration as to drive it into the arms of the State, and so assist a movement we are spending all our energy in combating.

Mention is made in the articles of the various sick and benefit societies—Oddfellows, Foresters, and the like. These societies exist primarily for mutual insurance against sickness, but they nearly all possess charitable funds for distribution among the widows and orphans of deceased members. From personal experience we can say that some of these funds are among the best and most considerately administered of any charities, and we can confidently recommend their value in any scheme of co-operation in administration.

The question is undoubtedly serious and will inevitably become intensified now that necessitous school children are being fed and old-age pensions really appear on the Government list. Nebulous as the "Times" scheme is, as a nucleus it may be useful; but, whatever the final form, it must have no qualities which will tend to dry up that kindly personal feeling we believe to be the well from which all real charity flows.

#### THE CITY.

UPON the reduction of the Bank rate from 6 to 5 per cent., the Stock Exchange, with its usual proneness to paradox, put prices down all round. In truth, the lowering of the rate had been so confidently anticipated that when it was announced the foolish said "there was nothing left to go for," though if it had not been reduced there would probably have been a serious fall. Home Railways were unaccountably weak—unaccountably, that is, in the case of a stock like North-Eastern Consols, for the traffic return on this line was the one increase among a long list of declines. Probably the severe weather accounted for some of this. Anyhow, Caledonian Deferred, rather a speculative favourite of late, fell more than half a point. The Argentine railway traffics continue to show good increases, that on the Rosario being over £6,000 for the week, and on the Buenos Ayres and Pacific being over £9,000, almost the same as last week. But the really big increases on these lines have not begun, as the wheat harvest is only just over, and is beginning to be threshed, but has not begun to be carried. As it is, Rosarios have moved up one point, from 107½ to 108½, and Pacifics have risen two points to 119. Both these securities will, barring accidents, continue to rise during the next six months, and we confidently expect to see Rosarios at 116 and Buenos Ayres and Pacifics at 130.

In the mining market interest has centred on two points, De Beers and Rio Tintos. In the diamond world there has naturally been a good deal of talk about Sir Julius Wernher and M. Lemoine, the French alchemist, who professes to make diamonds in his crucible. The case is still in the hands of lawyers, French and English, and we must not discuss it. But it is permissible to ask what will happen to De Beers if the Frenchman succeeds in making diamonds, as Mr. Jackson says he can. The cancellation, or rather postponement, of the dividend, declared in December, on Premier Deferred naturally produced an unfavourable impression. De Beers Deferred, which had been pushed up to 14½ by purchases from Paris, dropped to below 14, and are

likely, we understand, to go lower. The boomlet in Kaffirs based on the Gordon drill has, like so many of its predecessors, come down to earth like a damp rocket. Modders, the bell-wether of the speculative flock, rose to 7 and then sank to 6½, and will probably go lower.

Rio Tintos have also been the sport of conflicting rumours. The market for copper has undoubtedly much improved; but it was rumoured that there had been a subsidence at the mine, on which "Tints" fell from 67 to 66. Then it was discovered that it was a trumpety affair of £6,000 or £7,000; and the shares rose to 69. Then again rumours were put about that the village was in ruins, and the miners flying for their lives. This was, of course, a rather clumsy "bear" canard, and did not succeed particularly well, as the shares hardly moved. We heard from sources not altogether despicable that the Commonwealth Oil Corporation, despite of its being shepherded by a millionaire journalist, is a very risky venture. There is certainly no justification for the high premium at which the ordinary shares stand, as even if they get the promised dividend of 6 per cent. next summer, which is doubtful, they would only yield about 3 per cent., an absurd return for a share of this description. The deservedly abused "Deep Leads" in Victoria, on the other hand, are, we are told, making quiet but real progress towards profitable results. It is easy to moralise over the story of Starkey, Leveson and Cooke, stockbrokers, as told in the Bankruptcy Court. By their own speculations the firm lost £73,000 and by those of their clients £83,000 odd, or £156,000, by gambling on the Stock Exchange. Two of the partners are now undergoing terms of penal servitude, while their clients are hiding their losses as best they can. Such are some of the results, which peep out from time to time, of war loans, which drain the markets, and of mad attempts by mediocrities to ape American and South African millionaires.

It is matter for satisfaction that the Stock Exchange is now like a house newly swept and garnished, and speculation is reduced to legitimate proportions. But if the year 1907 has been strewn with the wrecks of speculators and investors, it has been a good one for bankers, the depreciation of whose investments has been more than counterbalanced by the very high rates of interest which they have been able to levy on customers. Thus Lloyd's Bank, after appropriating £200,000 to writing down investments, have paid for the year a fraction over 18 per cent. to their shareholders, and Williams Deacon's Bank have declared a dividend of 15 per cent.

We quite agree, by the way, with a letter in the "Times" from "An Old Customer of Lloyd's Bank", that if bank managers are in the habit of gossiping over their clients' affairs with the agents of trade-protection societies there is an end of confidence in banks. If the managers of banks and insurance societies could not be trusted to keep their customers' secrets, the world would become uninhabitable.

The Ethelburga Syndicate, which we confess is to us "ignotum" if not "mirabile", is offering to underwriters £40,000 debentures (6 per cent.) at the price of £95 for £100 debenture stock and £60 ordinary shares in the Caribbean Anglo-Colombian Cable Company, which has been formed to construct a cable from Puerto Colombia (Savanilla) to Kingston, Jamaica. The Government of the Republic of Colombia guarantees under the concession an income of £28,768, and as the interest on £110,000 first debentures and £50,000 second debentures (also 6 per cent.) only amounts to £11,200 (together with sinking fund), there is a margin of £17,568. The price of the debentures together with the 60 per cent. bonus in shares makes the offer tempting; but after all the security is the good faith of the Colombian Government, which we do not trust. Contracts with Spanish and Portuguese Governments are very dangerous, as those who were interested in the Delagoa Bay railway have reason to remember. Those who have been connected with emerald mining do not speak of the Colombian Government with respect.



## INSURANCE AND THE PRICE OF SECURITIES.

IN the United States the assets of insurance companies are valued by the Insurance Departments of the different States. In view of the greatly depreciated value of securities prevailing on 31 December, 1907, many of the Insurance Departments have sanctioned the valuation of securities on the basis of market prices as at the end of 1906. There is a certain fitness in this arrangement, which suggests some interesting considerations. The recent panic undoubtedly caused a fall in prices, which to some extent at least is only temporary. Life assurance companies seldom require to sell securities when the market conditions are unfavourable, because their funds are normally increasing and current income more than suffices for current outlay. Unless, therefore, depreciation in the value of assets is permanent it does no harm to a life office in the long run. The securities being retained until prices recover, and in a great many cases the amount of interest received being the same as when prices were high, writing-down is little more than a matter of book-keeping. Insurance companies are continually requiring fresh investments for their accumulating funds, and therefore the prevalence of very low prices affords the opportunity of obtaining good investments on favourable terms. Thus the existence of unusually low prices is on the whole more beneficial than harmful to insurance companies.

If this point is not understood, policyholders may be dissatisfied and insurance companies unjustly blamed if bonuses have to be decreased in consequence of the depreciation in the value of securities. In the near future we shall be receiving the valuation reports of various insurance companies whose distribution of profits takes place as at 31 December, 1907. The New York Life Insurance Company, in spite of legislative permission to value securities at the higher prices prevailing a year ago, have for their own purposes maintained their regular practice of assigning the current market prices to all their securities. This course will be followed by British offices, a great many of whom will have to write off substantial sums for depreciation, which in other circumstances would have been available for bonuses. Thus a decrease in the rate of bonus is, in certain cases, probable if not certain, and should not be regarded too seriously or as an indication that the permanent results will be less favourable than in the past.

The report of the National Mutual Life Assurance Society states that all the Stock Exchange securities have been written down to their selling price on 31 December last, and £37,968 written off on this account. The National Mutual has no valuation until the end of the present year, and it is not usual for companies to write down securities except at the dates of valuations. The National Mutual is conspicuously successful with its investments, of which, contrary to the usual practice, it always gives full particulars, an example which it would be well if other companies would follow. The depreciation in this case amounts to about 1½ per cent. of the total amount of the life assurance fund, and is suggestive of the large sums which some other offices will be bound to set aside for depreciation. There are a few fortunate companies which will escape the necessity for debiting this decrease in value to their revenue accounts; these are the offices which have not, in their balance sheets, entered securities at their market prices when these prices exceeded the book value ascribed to them. Assets have been written down to their market value when necessary, but not written up, with the result that, the real value being in excess of the apparent value, there is a large concealed reserve which stands a company in good stead at such times as the present.

When bonuses are distributed every five years in accordance with the usual English custom, the depreciation in securities may cause a fluctuation in bonus results if a valuation occurs at an inopportune time such as the present. Other sources of surplus, however, such as the rate of mortality, are spread over five years and average results are obtained. When bonuses have to be declared annually, as for instance under the

new laws of the State of New York, average results are less likely to be realised, with the undesirable consequence that there may be appreciable fluctuations in the rate of bonus from year to year. We have long advocated the abolition of the tontine bonus system, under which policyholders paying full rates of premium for participating policies receive no bonuses unless they survive for, say, twenty years. If bonuses are declared quinquennially and an intermediate bonus is paid on those policies which become claims between one valuation and the next, the result is practically an annual bonus without the objectionable tendency to fluctuation which results from a yearly declaration of profits. The present low price of securities is likely to emphasise the disadvantages of an annual bonus declaration and to exhibit in this respect the folly of recent New York legislation, which is so marked in regard to other points as well.

## MORE IRISH FISSION.

THE one hopeful sign in Ireland is the increasing departure of "Unity", as much deplored by the people as it is to their advantage. It is the natural repulsion of social units unnaturally associated; the revolt of life from the disease of organised disorder, dictated against individual freedom.

In Britain the transition from Feudalism to Democracy has proved so effective that if the people lack freedom it is their own fault; but the British forget that the Irish, on their way out of Communism, were caught by the political trader as an asset of his own, inventing democratic institutions without Democracy, with the average citizen even more speechless than he was under the tribal chieftain. In Ireland it has been merely an exchange of tyrannies, with the professional leader in place of the patrician, wielding a power as complete, but without the responsibilities. The efforts at "Unity" are to continue this, but the instinct of freedom rebels more and more, even in those "organising" to prolong the agony.

The old formula was—"You shall organise on my definition, and he that declines shall be crushed". The new formula is—"You shall organise as your individual freedom may determine, and no one must be crushed for his opinions". The essential failure of all recent Governments in Ireland, and especially of the present Government, is in not insisting upon and defending this fundamental right of individual freedom, which is always dearer to a civilised people than any external definitions of sentimental slavery organised for the benefit of the organiser. The inherent weakness of Irish Nationalism up to now has always been its organised opposition to individual freedom, mediæval in its origin and nature, reactionary in its method, and necessarily deadly in its results; but instead of asserting individual freedom as the essential antidote, we find the present Government practically abdicating its first functions, and employing our Irish tyrannies as its standards of British justice. I have travelled much of late in Ireland, and everywhere found the peasants under the impression that the Chief Secretary was in favour of cattle-driving. Why do not all Governments, by whatever party, agree upon this simple provision as a first principle—"We shall decline to treat with any form of Nationalism that does not recognise individual freedom as a first necessity of progress"? Given that, even Nationalism itself would be raised at once to a higher level, and it is the lowness of its level that makes it such an evil to both countries. While presenting itself as a tyranny, dependent on the negation of individual freedom, it remains plainly unfit to be trusted with the rights of minorities; but it can hardly present itself otherwise while its tyrannies are employed as the instruments of Government. Were it not for this continued failure of Government to defend the freedom of the individual, our revolt from "Unity" would grow still more rapidly, and Irish Nationality might soon become as much an advantage to both countries as it is now an evil; but an evil it must remain so long as it is opposed to the democratic idea, as it always has been.

In spite of all, the revolt is growing, even in the very men who "organise" for the old formula of

tyranny. Mr. Redmond and Mr. O'Brien have met for "Unity", and parted for Freedom, neither of them accepting from the other the fetters which both would fasten on the people for their joint aggrandisement. Mr. Redmond would feel enslaved under Mr. O'Brien's "Unity", and Mr. O'Brien would feel enslaved under Mr. Redmond's "Unity", but neither of them will notice the enslavement of the people under the "Unity" of both. Accordingly the people are following the example. If their leaders try to escape from the tyranny of one another, why should not the people try to escape from the tyranny of the leaders? The pity is that there is not a Government strong enough or honest enough to protect the people in their efforts to escape.

Mr. Redmond and Mr. O'Brien are attracted by definitions, but repelled by impulses, which go so much deeper than definitions. They meet as politicians, but they part as human beings, and humanity goes much deeper than politics. They want the joint dominion which "Unity" might give them over the individual freedom of their followers; but they do not want for themselves any such restrictions as that dominion would impose on the people. In short, they insist on their own individual freedom even more than they can organise "Unity" against that of the people. The human repulsions prevail over the political attractions. The heads unite, and the hearts divide, but the hearts are wiser than the heads. The heads are concerned to invent definitions that enslave; the hearts originate the impulses of freedom which defeat the definitions. In the opinion of either gentleman, the other is a tyrant, and, for once, I am disposed to differ from neither of them.

Mr. Redmond and Mr. O'Brien are now well acquainted with my own central postulate of Individual Freedom as essential to any effective form of Nationalism, and they unite in denouncing it; but the moment they attempt "Unity" in opposition to it, they divide more widely than ever, personifying the accuracy of my analysis in their efforts to evade it. Why, then, will they not recognise the right of the people to the same individual freedom which they exact from one another? I have never printed anything so destructive to Irish Nationalism as we have worked out in the life and conduct of these two gentlemen, and I am naturally pleased to have two such representative microbes in the laboratory of my Hibernian biology of politics.

In their Council of Four, our two heroes met, each chaperoned by his own cleric, from which we might conclude that Irish public life was not more than half clerical; but then we know that neither of them would venture to settle anything without the approval of both clerics. Besides, the clerics want just that amount of "Unity" which they can most easily dominate in the clerical interest, and experience shows that a "split" party is the most convenient. While there are two divisions, the cleric can choose his own, and Mr. O'Brien is more useful at a tangent or on parallel lines so long as there is any sign of anti-clericalism in the main body. The clerics know well that anti-clericalism has grown rapidly in the main body of late, with successive elections of quite intelligent men; and in case this should develop to inconvenience, it is well to have Mr. O'Brien in reserve, ready to be the clerical leader. For the present, in most constituencies, nothing more would be needed than to brand all opposed to him as "infidels", because the revolt from "Unity" represents not more than a minority as yet anywhere. Indeed, the hand of the cleric is indicated by the manner in which they divided on details after having agreed on all principles without exception. The Dublin "Independent" calls it "miserable and petty", but Mr. Redmond and Mr. O'Brien are obviously above both adjectives, assuming them free from the sacerdotal harness in which they are kept drifting against one another.

The other new example of our departure from "Unity" is the escape of so many leading men from the "Freeman's Journal" staff to the service of "the tyrannical British Government". One has become a County Court judge, another a Local Government Board inspector, and four others stand charged with the crime of earning their living in the best way open to them. These are the very men who for so many

painful years have written so "brilliantly" to denounce the institution into whose service they have now gone; but the "authorities" of the "Freeman" announce that they can find any number of successors to continue the imposition on the national intelligence. It is too late. The "Freeman" has been falling for years. It has been the special organ of clericalism disguised under the name of nationality, the accredited mouth-piece of organised tyranny against individual freedom, which gives double significance to its decline. A sham so obvious could not permanently impose even on the peasantry of Ireland; and we may well hope for the future of the country when the "Freeman" staff escape by half-dozens, with Mr. Redmond and Mr. O'Brien escaping from one another. When her leaders fall out, Ireland comes by her own. PAT.

#### ABOUT PANTOMIME.

A SLIGHT drawback to the jollity of the pantomime season, year by year, is that nobody seems to like the pantomimes. I do not say that these productions are not lucrative. Many thousands of souls go to see them. But it is the rarest thing to be recommended by one of these souls to go and do likewise. And it is the commonest thing to hear complaints about this and that pantomime's dullness, vulgarity, incoherence, pointlessness, inordinate length, oppressive glitter, and so forth. As the malcontents do not take the obvious course of staying away from the pantomimes, it is perhaps not unreasonable to doubt the sincerity of their outcries, and to suspect that they take a real pleasure in alternations of music-hall "turns" and awfully expensive spectacles grafted on to a pretence of repeating the story of this or that nursery rhyme for the millionth time.

But a grievance is not necessarily the less genuine because it is unfelt by the people who utter it. And it is a very real pity that pantomime stays sprawling on its old low level, instead of rising towards the heights that are open to it. Pantomime, the one art-form that has been invented in England, an art-form specially adapted to English genius, is in itself surely as attractive as any art-form that the world has known; and it is amazing that no Englishman of genius has ever laid a finger on it. What possibilities could be more immense? To take a legend that you are fond of, or to invent a legend on your own account, and then to set it forth in poetry and prose, with the arts of music and dancing to adorn it, and with nothing to baulk you of any whim you may choose to indulge in by the way, any irrelevance whatsoever of time or space, so that you are free to celebrate or to satirise anything that is happening at this moment in your own city—off-hand, what chance could be less easy for the man of genius to resist? Strange that the chance should be left in the hands of hacks who can make no use of it! True, there is "Peter Pan". But Mr. Barrie's genius is not many-sided enough to produce a pantomime in the true sense of the word. Humour and fun and fantasy he has. But poetry is needed, too; and Mr. Barrie's sentimentalism is not poetry. Also, he has not at all that gift for which pantomime affords such splendid scope—the gift of satire. Is there among us no man who could supply all the needful qualities? I was amused, the other day, by a leading article in "The Morning Post", deploring the present state of pantomime, and insisting that we ought to have a pantomime that would be a national and immortal classic, worthy to be compared with the works of Aristophanes. The way we were to get it was not by taking any one illustrious person by the scruff of the neck and maintaining our grip till he had produced the requisite article, but by knocking the heads of various more or less illustrious persons together. I forget the full list; but Mr. Barrie, I remember, was to do the legend, and Mr. Rudyard Kipling the lyrics, while Mr. H. W. Lucy was to put in the satire! Evidently the writer of this leading article was more accustomed to deal with politics than with literature. He is betrayed by his naïf notion that there is nothing in England worth satirising outside the musty radius of the House of Commons, and by his not less



naïf notion that a good work of art can be produced very much as a strong Ministry can be formed. Not even, as he doubtless knows, does a Ministry of All the Talents make a composite success; and much less hope is there, I assure him, for a pantomime composed by a committee—even though the members happened, unlike the persons named, to have something remotely in common.

Suppose Aristophanes were re-incarnated as an Englishman in our midst, and were commissioned by Mr. Arthur Collins or another to pour forth all his gifts of poetry, wit, humour, foolery and satire in the form of a pantomime. Undoubtedly, the production would be a popular success, but the satire (which, after all, was Aristophanes' strongest point) would all have to be cut out. There we come to the reason why we are not likely ever to have a pantomime raised to its highest possibilities. In Athens there was an audience for satire. Aristophanes could make a butt of this or that thing in philosophy, in literature, in politics, in religion, with the sure knowledge that none of his most delicate strokes would be unappreciated. The Athenians had no newspapers to keep them posted in the latest developments of philosophy, literature, politics, religion. It might be supposed, therefore, that the satiric dramatist would have an even surer chance of success now in London than he had in unblest Athens. That supposition, however, would rest on ignorance of the fact that, whereas the average Athenian thought and talked a good deal about philosophy, literature, politics, religion, and thus was able to see the point of Aristophanes' jokes, the average Londoner neither thinks nor talks about such matters, and reads nothing in the newspapers except the "disasters" and the "mysteries" and the "social doings" and the accounts of cricket matches or football matches as the case may be. It is for this reason that the attempts to popularise in London something like the Parisian "revue" have been such dismal failures. A few nights ago I was at the Coronet Theatre, where "Humpty Dumpty" is being enacted. One of the comedians, greatly daring, interpolated a joke about Mr. Bernard Shaw: he expressed his delight in the prospect of going "where there is a silent shore". He waited for the laugh; but not a titter rewarded him; and the "principal boy", to help him out, said, "I'm shore I don't know what you mean"—a remark which the quick-witted Londoners received with roars of merriment. Topical allusions, in London, must be aimed only at Mr. Winston Churchill, and at one or two other public persons of whose existence the public has a glimmering knowledge. For the rest, the jokes must be about sausages, mothers-in-law, and the other few things which are fixed by usage as being funny. Even if the British public had knowledge enough to understand satire on this or that aspect of the more vital things in modern life, I doubt whether they would enjoy it. Instinctively, they mistrust a satirist. Sir W. S. Gilbert's libretti were popular partly through the accompanying music, and partly because of their sheer fun. But, in so far as he was a satirist, he was considered (as is Mr. Shaw to-day) rather inhuman. The chances are, therefore, all against the ideal pantomime. But the annual success of "Peter Pan" should encourage the managers to aim at something above the present level. Why does not one of them "approach" Mr. Chesterton, for example? I can imagine, as the result, an admirable riot of fantasy and fun and poetry. And there is Mr. Belloc. But he could hardly be trusted to keep satire in leash.

Meanwhile, I suppose the production at the Coronet Theatre must be regarded as a conscientious effort towards that higher level at which I am pointing. But it is not the sort of effort which will effect much. Not much can come of foisting touches of Barrie-ism into a quite ordinary pantomime. "Written with a thought for the little ones", says the programme, sweetly. And now and again there appears on the stage a girl, who, in the costume of Little Lord Fauntleroy, is supposed to be dreaming the whole thing. Also, the principal comic man, dressed as Queen Elizabeth, has to pull himself together and sing a serious song to a company of children in night-gowns—"God bless you, babies! Be babies as long as you can!" I do not suppose this

plea for arrested development makes much impression on normal "little ones", in whom the unconscious act of growing is always accompanied by a conscious desire to be grown-up. I deplore it merely as an example of the maudlin and doddering futility of the modern pose towards children.

MAX BEERBOHM.

#### ART AND LEGEND.

TO those who are familiar with the paintings and colour-prints of Japan it is a rather odd sensation to see the same subjects from the life or scenery of that country portrayed by a European eye and hand. Mr. R. W. Allan has been painting in Japan, and some of the results are to be seen in the Landscape Exhibition at the rooms of the Old Water-colour Society. I think most of us will find Mr. Allan more happily inspired by his native shores, the life of fishing-villages and storm-weathered seaports. Mr. Peppercorn is one of the group of six painters who make up this annual exhibition, and he gives us landscapes as good, I imagine, as anything he has done, though with no fresh note in their sombre breadth. His scenes of desolate wood and water seem always conceived rather as large sepia studies, translated to oils and canvas; and the richer, more solid medium really claims more depth, complexity and variety of treatment than he vouchsafes to any one picture. Mr. Leslie Thomson is more fortunate in combining a large and luminous effect with the more intimate qualities of which oil paint is capable; he preserves the English landscape tradition of unaffected treatment, and is singularly free from trick and mannerism; he has great sense for the beauty of wide skies of clear colour, such as are tender and aerial over his "Irish Bog".

But to return to Mr. Allan's versions of Japan, which prompt my remarks. We miss of course in the figures that trip or loiter under blossoming trees, by ponds or old temples, the enchanting lightness and fluid harmonies that are inbred in the conventions of the native art. In a landscape like the "Fuji from Suruga Bay", the European artist can challenge comparison more fairly. Yet in this picture there is something accidental, something not adequately or completely felt. Even had a Turner painted the subject, I think we should have had a sense of loss. For to the European, Fuji is but a white volcanic peak, like other isolated volcanoes of the world; it is not, as to every Japanese, the Incomparable Mountain, the majestic symbol of their nation, part of its history, tinged with its aspirations, attracting and focussing in one lofty, visible presence the love of beauty that has possessed a race for a hundred generations.

Some months ago I wrote something in this Review about the tradition of subject, as apart from tradition of method and manner, which prevails in Japanese art; not only, as with us, in the painting of religious and mythological subjects, but even in landscape. And over all the landscape art of Japan that is not founded on that of China and eschews the classic scenery of the Continent, the pure image of Fuji towers. An Oriental wishing to study the art of Europe would need, no doubt, an ample and exhaustive book of reference to explain the mass of legend, history and religious symbolism with which its images of the older periods are inextricably bound up. But modern painting, and sculpture to a less degree, has been moving away from all this, and tending more and more to be the expression of individual personalities through self-created means. Whatever gain there may be in this, and I doubt if it amounts to much, there is certainly great loss when an art cuts itself off from the nourishing life-currents that flow through the history and inherited thought of a race; a loss of solidarity and concentration. That solidarity must strike everyone in the art of the Far East, the more it is studied and understood. In a large and handsome volume, profusely illustrated ("Legend in Japanese Art." Lane. 84s. net), M. Henri Joly has gathered together and presented in dictionary form a great body of information on the subjects which recur perennially in the works of Japanese artists. The work was needed. In a world of imagery which is strange to most of us a

guide is indispensable. Dr. Anderson's catalogue of the paintings in the British Museum, a storehouse of knowledge on the whole subject, is out of print and almost impossible to procure. It has, too, but few illustrations; and illustrations are really necessary for a student's use if he has not a collection at hand. M. Joly's work is therefore timely and welcome, and will prove of helpful service to all interested in the subject. I believe it would have been still more welcome if it had been somewhat less sumptuous and more work-a-day in appearance, if it had been made of smaller size, convenient for interleaving. As a general criticism I would say that both text and illustrations are rather too exclusively concerned with the later art, the art of the Tokugawa period. However, the inros and netsukés which have been so enthusiastically collected in Europe all belong to this period, and as it is for European collectors that the book has been produced, one ought not perhaps to complain: only, it accentuates that misconception of the true perspective of Japanese art which European books have done so much to establish; and in many cases far finer illustrations could have been found than those chosen to illustrate a particular subject. The coloured plates are nearly all after prints by Kuniyoshi, with a few by Hiroshige or Kunisada. Kuniyoshi's "Nichiren" is a beautiful thing, but many of the others are of comparatively little interest as art and were hardly worth reproducing in colour. But it would be unfair to press criticism on this line, since M. Joly's main object is to help us in identifying and explaining unknown subjects, not to give a complete or proportioned idea of Japanese art in its æsthetic aspect. And so far as I have been able to test the book, it fulfils its object. No one, I suppose, ever compiled a work of this sort without making some errors and omissions. It seems to me a mistake, for instance, that the principal characters of the "Chiushingura" are not entered under their names, since they occur so frequently in the prints of the popular school; and I do not understand on what principle certain of the great artists of Japan are included: Okio, for instance, who is dismissed with an anecdote, and Toba Sojo, who is wrongly stated to have been a comic artist only. It would surely have been better to exclude all artists unless they themselves have figured, like Kanaoka, in traditional subjects. I can find no mention of the god Monju, a very frequent figure in art. And most of the notices might, I think, have been fuller. But of the whole volume one may say that the ordinary student in a difficulty will rarely be disappointed of finding the information he wants. The Chinese characters of each name are given, and this is a help which those who use the book will appreciate.

"Legend" is a convenient title which really bears a large interpretation in M. Joly's book and includes historical incidents and personages, the association and symbolism of flowers, trees, and animals, besides legendary lore, religious myths, and all the inheritance of ideas from India and from China. A very distinguished Frenchman told me once that nothing impressed him more when in Japan than the way in which the knowledge of their country's past and all its national heroes permeated all classes of the Japanese, down to the children playing in the gutter. This is partly the effect, partly no doubt the cause, of the character of their popular art and its ever-fresh treatment of subjects that really mean something to the people at large, its lively, often humorous and irreverent, but still keenly interested handling of the familiar images of story and tradition. Here, surely, we lose. England is not less rich in beautiful and heroic figures, but we do not cherish their images, and when our artists, for once in a while, set out to picture them, they are fussily pre-occupied with antiquarian detail and correctness; as if art could ever really conceive of the past as past, in the historian's sense, or could be concerned with anything but what endures and has life, from whatever age of time it flowers. It is a signal source of power to the Japanese that for them, and not only the artists among them, their nation, with all its history, all its dead, all its past, is conceived of as one living and continuous presence, pervaded by one unextinguished spirit. Schoolboys, as M. Joly tells us, are fond of making rude sketches of the wandering priest Saigyô,

the twelfth-century saint, with his broad traveller's hat and his staff, contemplating the glory of Fuji; and this is but one of a thousand instances of the way in which such figures animate and recreate themselves in the daily life of the people. Imagine the advantage for the artist for whom such lively communication is already prepared between his public and what he seeks to portray; all his powers can then be concentrated on presenting his own idea of that image, instead of being half-expended on irrelevant accessories, designed to give an apathetic and mostly ignorant public an inkling of what his picture is about. As a mirror of the ideals, faiths, superstitions, heroic and pathetic stories of the race, Japanese art is wonderfully complete. It has all the lore of Buddhism and its saints, of Taoism and its wizard hermits, of Confucianism and its tales of filial devotion, to draw upon, no less than all those terrible and sanguinary episodes of Japan's own mediæval wars, ennobled often by religious fervour, or sweetened by tenderness, chivalry and romance. To all this world, of fascinating interest, M. Joly's volume is an admirable guide.

Mr. Tweed's model, in completion of Alfred Stevens' equestrian statue of Wellington over the monument in St. Paul's, was set up in position in the Cathedral at the beginning of the year, and is still on view. I hope shortly to write of this, and of other public monuments, as well as of the schemes for decorating the House of Lords; at the moment I can only say that Mr. Tweed has done his work with scrupulous loyalty, and we must all owe him gratitude for so successfully completing Stevens' noble monument.

LAURENCE BINYON.

#### SWERVE IN BILLIARDS AND CURLING.

THERE was lately some correspondence in the SATURDAY REVIEW and the "Times" on the subject of swerve in billiards and in curling. It arose out of a speech made by Lord Dunedin at a meeting of the Royal Society. Consequent on my letter in the SATURDAY REVIEW, Lord Dunedin has referred the correspondence to me. I have read it carefully, from the report of the meeting of the Royal Society to Lord Dunedin's last letter.

It is clear to me that "X. Y. Z." does not understand the subject on which he is writing. In his letter of 3 December last he writes: "The ball does not go to the left until it strikes some elastic body, either another ball or the cushion." Personally I should not define an ivory billiard ball as an elastic body, particularly if it came into hurried contact with my head, but—that is another story. "X. Y. Z.'s" statement is utterly wrong. The ball does frequently leave the straight line of run before contact with either a ball or a cushion. This is so well known to ordinary billiard players that I feel it almost ridiculous to argue it. The ball swerves or runs off the straight line when played (1) with extreme side, (2) with plenty of left or right bottom, (3) with a kind of half-massé shot. Surely "X. Y. Z." must know that it is easy to demonstrate this. If he does not I shall be pleased to put the three balls in a line diagonally across the table, and "pot" the ball in the far pocket. For instance, I should put the red over the right-hand pocket in baulk, the spot in the centre of the table, and the white over the left-hand top pocket. One can then easily swing out past the spot-ball, curve in, and pot the red. With the last shot (No. 3) a great deflection from the straight line may be obtained, and many amateurs do it quite easily.

"X. Y. Z." continues: "When Lord Dunedin fozzles a left-side shot and misses the object-ball altogether his ball travels to the right". This is distinctly funny nomenclature to introduce into billiards. As Lord Dunedin points out, a "fozzle" at billiards is a "miss-cue". "X. Y. Z." means apparently that if Lord Dunedin hits his ball fairly and truly with left side on it and misses the object-ball the cue-ball will diverge to the right from the straight line between the cue-tip and the object-ball. This, every billiard player knows from experience, is contrary to fact; and, as some few of them know, to natural laws. "X. Y. Z." has in my opinion totally failed to grasp the point at issue. It is a



matter of swerve in billiards, and he is confusing it with contact with objects other than the table-bed.

Lord Dunedin is correct in his explanation why a billiard ball with left side runs to the left and a curling stone with left to right spin curves to the right. He writes: "The distinction consists not in the fact of striking or not striking an object, but in the fact that in the one case the spin is associated with a rolling, in the other with a sliding motion". This is an absolutely correct, though somewhat general, explanation of the matter.

When side is imparted to a billiard ball rotation on approximately a vertical axis is set up. In other words it proceeds to spin like a cart-wheel turning on an upright axle. As forward momentum is also imparted to it the ball strives to run forward as a hoop does. The gyroscopic action of the side is however fighting the forward rotation, which tries to come in at a plane that forms a right angle to the plane of spin of the side. The result, naturally, is a compromise between the two forces, which must infallibly tend to drag the vertical spin over towards the plane in which the side is making the ball spin. The effect of this, which is called the "resultant" of the two forces, imparts a side roll at an angle of anything from 45 to 60 degrees to the ball, which responds to this off the table-bed even as it does off a cushion, but naturally, owing to its non-elastic nature, in a less degree. It must be remembered that the butt of the cue is nearly always higher than the tip at the moment the stroke is played. Naturally the downward tendency of the stroke that follows tends to accentuate the roll. This is a trifling detail, and I have not seen it emphasised before, but in such a matter as swerve, whether in the air or on a billiard table, the smallest factors of a stroke or a delivery have quite an important bearing on the general result.

Now as to the curling stone. The curling stone swerves in the opposite way to a billiard ball because it obeys the same laws as a swerving ball in the air. To understand this clearly one must realise, which few people do, that the top of a carriage wheel in passing along the road moves more quickly through the atmosphere than the bottom. This sounds almost foolish, but it is absolutely sound. It is due to the movable axis, or axle. The top of the wheel has forward motion plus forward revolution. The bottom of the wheel has the same forward motion minus backward revolution. Anyone can easily prove this for himself. Put a trap wheel so that two spokes are in a vertical line. Drive in a stick so that it is in the same straight line. Move the trap on six inches and one will see that the continuation, or production, of the top spoke at the tyre has moved much more than the bottom one at the opposite extreme. Of course if one were to suspend the trap by a "jack" and spin the wheel this would not be so. It is the movable axis that accounts for the more rapid motion of the upper part of the wheel. When one has grasped this, one has practically the secret of swerve.

The portion of the ball that is spinning fastest and against the air pillow naturally sets up more friction with the air than that portion which is moving more slowly and is retreating from it and yielding to the air-pressure. The ball naturally seeks the line of least resistance, and is thus deflected towards the side which is spinning away from the air-pressure in front of it. So it is with the curling stone, but here we have ice pressing against the fast-spinning side instead of air, yet the result is the same. I may be asked, Why then does a billiard ball not do the same? A billiard ball's contact is comparatively a mere point, and it has a side roll imparted to it; a curling stone has a large contact surface, and has naturally, even relatively to its weight, more frictional surface when moving in contact with the ice than has the billiard ball on cloth.

Professor Turner states "a billiard ball with left side will travel either to right or left according to the direction of the nap of the cloth and without striking either cushion or another ball", and he asks "X. Y. Z." to explain this. This was on 7 December, but I notice that "X. Y. Z." has not yet obliged Professor Turner. In my opinion the influence of the nap of the very best cloth is much exaggerated. The commoner and thicker the cloth the worse it would naturally be. Briefly, I may say that I consider the influence of the nap on a

ball is made up as follows: When a ball is running with the nap it is running over thousands of little points, each one of which is pointing out to the ball the way it should go, and quite naturally it is affected, but very slightly so, by these delicate suggestions. Coming up against the nap every one of these points is an opponent doing its best to bar the ball's progress, and force it out of the line of run. I cannot here go fully into this matter, which really is beside the question at issue.

On the whole question I have no hesitation in saying that Lord Dunedin's general explanation is correct; and I must add that I am afraid "X. Y. Z." does not carry out his good precepts in his practice, for in this case he is most certainly wrong, yet is laying down the law to those who, like Lord Dunedin, have more knowledge of the subject than he has.

P. A. VAILE.

#### THE TRUTH ABOUT TIGERS.

THERE are certain articles of faith as to India so strongly held in England that it is hopeless to attack them with much chance of success. Not only is all India believed to be hot, and all natives of India to be black, but all tigers are of course fulfilled with original sin, and if not invariably, are at least usually, man-eaters. As a fact, the man-eaters are rare and conspicuous exceptions. The great majority of tigers lead innocent lives, and their carnivorous habits, instead of being accounted to them for unrighteousness, should be regarded as their chief claim to public estimation, for their diet consists chiefly of those animals, which prey upon, and destroy, the crops of the agriculturists. Now the cultivators, or at any rate men interested in one way or another in cultivation, represent 70 to 80 per cent. of the population of India, and whoever serves the cultivator is therefore performing a valuable public service.

Tigers have no desire to come in contact with mankind, which indeed they shun with all their might. It is possible to live close to their haunts and never to obtain a glimpse of the glorious beasts. I have morning after morning, for months together, wandered through tropical forests, seeing the pug-marks of tigers' feet in the wet soil of such path as exists, which is generally made by the elephant. Very often upon the round, flat mark of the foot of the elephant would be superimposed the lighter, smaller, but not altogether dissimilar, mark of the tiger's foot, but in no circumstances is the sportsman likely to come upon the tiger, so anxious is the latter to keep out of his way.

Once, in most exceptional atmospheric and geographical conditions, upon high lawns over 7,000 feet above the sea-level, enveloped in dense clouds, shifting and rolling, which now and again disclosed a fragment of the blue tent of the sky above, or a glimpse of the Arabian Sea below, I did stumble upon a family of tigers playing like cats upon the grass beside a stream fringed with trees, not shrubs, of rhododendron. But in normal conditions it is only by locating the tiger and beating him out that there is the slightest chance of seeing him.

If however, deer are scarce in the forest, or the animal is too lazy to hunt, or of a curious and enterprising disposition, he will, and very frequently does, establish himself at the edge of the forest, just between the desert and the sown, and here he will live, striking down and devouring deer and pigs, which otherwise increase and multiply to such an extent as to make husbandry unremunerative or impossible. Now, of all tigers, these are conspicuously the friends of the farmer, but it is just this class which usually falls a victim to one of the many unlovely, bastard products of the commingling of East and West, the professional shikari. So long as the Government of India offers indiscriminate rewards for the destruction of tigers, regardless of their character, so long will this creature flourish. He possesses an ancient weapon which he fills up with odd bits of lead, or any other substitute, and having learnt the habits of the tiger, which of course are perfectly well known to all the neighbouring villagers, he takes him or her at a disadvantage in some situation safe to himself, and empties into the useful and beautiful creature the nondescript contents of his gaspise.

Nothing is easier or more profitable than to carry out this odious programme, in the dry weather, when the few pools at which the greater carnivora come to drink are as well known to the villager as the Round Pond or the Serpentine is to the Londoner. For each skin the shikari produces he receives thirty rupees, a sum upon which he can live, and according to his lights live well, for a year. Indeed that amount is just the average income per head—not per family—of the Indian peasant.

It is therefore apparent that if this kind of slaughter is continued it must at any rate seriously reduce the head of tigers. No one suggests that rewards should not be given for man-eaters. Indeed such rewards might well be increased, and of course it will be said that it is difficult or impossible to distinguish the man-eater from his innocent fraternity. Such however is not the case. Wherever there is cultivation, and wherever villagers live, they are gathered together in villages, and are not scattered about like farmers in Europe. They leave the village in order to attend to their cultivation, and return at night to sleep. The tiger is everywhere a personage, and he and the elephant command high consideration in the countryside, and their habits and their numbers are perfectly well known.

I have lived for weeks alongside quite small, well-defined forests containing tigers. Looking down from the hillside I could always tell when a tiger was on foot, where he was walking, and when he lay down to rest, for all these movements were reported by screaming birds and chattering apes from the tree-tops. By the like telegraphy and by the woodcraft which is born in them, by the interests and habits of countless generations, the villagers are perfectly well posted regarding the great beasts, and particularly regarding the tigers, in their neighbourhood. The man-eater is known, and well known, over the whole of his sometimes very extensive beat. A sportsman arriving—provided the villagers have confidence in him, and this is a large proviso, they must know their man—will have no difficulty whatever in being accurately informed concerning the man-eater's movements, but whether he will persuade the villagers to help him to get up to his quarry will depend entirely upon his personal reputation. It is easy enough to build a little leafy screen in a tree over a pool, and to sit and doze there night after night till the tiger comes to drink in the moonlight and cannot be missed, but it is quite another thing to beat out and face the man-eater on foot. Consequently the sportsman does not always get taken up to the man-eater, but that is not because the villagers do not know which is he, or rather she, for it is the female who generally preys on man, and where he or she lives. The indiscriminate offer of rewards in no way tends to the destruction of the real man-eater, while it ensures the wholesale extermination of the useful, indeed indispensable, deer and pig stalker and the cattle-lifter. As to the last-named, it must be admitted that he does carry off the villagers' cattle, but a united herd can always repel him, should he, which is unlikely, attack them. He only gets a straggler now and again, in return for which he kills large numbers of animals which commit enormous depredations upon crops, and cultivation.

There are of course districts in which tigers are generally of a man-eating and malevolent character. At any rate, there is one such, the Sunderbunds, where these animals might reasonably be regarded as members of the criminal classes with a price upon every head. Whether this is because the species degenerates in the dismal swamps formed by the accumulated silt of the Ganges, or whether it is that tigers living in such abnormal conditions develop abnormal dispositions, the fact remains that tigers in the Sunderbunds can never be trusted, or rather may be trusted to undertake active hostilities against human beings who penetrate this world of wood and water. It is probable that Malay tigers may develop the like character; but of the ordinary tiger of the plains and hills of India it may fairly be said that they are useful to the agriculturist, that they are, with rare exceptions, harmless to men, and that their extermination, which proceeds apace, is unjustifiable from the point of view of the administrator, the cultivator, and—whether or not he should be taken into account—the humanitarian.

J. D. REES.

#### FATE.

TWO shall be born, the whole wide world apart,  
And speak in different tongues, and have no thought

Each of the other's being—and have no heed;  
And these o'er unknown seas to unknown lands  
Shall cross, escaping wreck, defying death,  
And, all unconsciously, shape every act  
To this one end—

That, one day, out of darkness, they shall meet,  
And read Life's meaning in each other's eyes.

And two shall walk some narrow way of life,  
So nearly side by side that should one turn  
Ever so little space, to right or left,  
They needs must stand acknowledged, face to face;  
And yet, with wistful eyes that never meet,  
With groping hands that never clasp, and lips  
Calling in vain to ears that never hear,  
They seek each other all their weary days  
And die unsatisfied. And that is Fate.

G. E. EDMUNDSON.

Bucaramanga, 1907.

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

##### THE AMERICAN CRISIS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Harrisburg, Pa., U.S.A., December 25, 1907.

SIR,—The English papers seem to take a very lively interest at the present time in the industrial depression in the United States. I have lived here for more than twenty years and have had a good opportunity of forming a correct judgment. Your papers are, I believe, inclined to under-estimate the gravity of the situation in this country. The panic is merely a symptom of a more serious trouble—a great trade depression. The middle class is being rapidly wiped out of existence; combines and syndicates control everything. The consolidation of steam and street railways, steamships and other large transportation and manufacturing concerns, has led to the dismissal of many heads of departments and the closing in many instances of entire office buildings. And now that the factories and mills are closing their doors and trade is at a standstill the situation is indeed dreadful to contemplate.

One cannot obtain anything like an accurate estimate of existing industrial conditions from the ordinary newspapers of this country. The reason for this is that all the large dailies are entirely in the control of the corporate interests. Every paper worth controlling, outside the Union Labour and Socialist press, is in the grip of the combines. During the Boer War these same papers were controlled and used for another purpose. They were used to berate the English Government, with the object of diverting the attention of the American people from their own troubles. For even at that time an industrial trouble was "brewing". The advent of the Boer War helped to tide over that depression. It created a demand for men and mules—of both of which this country had an oversupply.

The last great industrial depression in this country dates back to 1893. Usually we seem to get these crises every ten years. There is no doubt that the crisis now upon us was delayed by artificial demands created by the Spanish-American and the Boer Wars, the Russo-Japanese War and the San Francisco earthquake. For several years the mills and factories have been running day and night and wages have been "high". I mean "high" compared with foreign wages but not "high" compared with the cost of living here. The cost of living has been going up by leaps and bounds. All the necessities of life are in the control of the trusts



or combines. We have a trust to control everything, from milk to money and from treacle to timber. In every city people who own houses to rent have a combine to keep up rents. The American is ushered into this world by the doctors' trust, he is fed by the meat trust and the flour trust, his light and heat are supplied by the oil trust and the coal trust, and when he "shuffles off this mortal coil" he does so by the aid of the drug trust and finally is buried by the coffin trust. Our papers are prompt at directing attention to the tyranny of the Tsar of Russia, but when the Governor of Nevada calls for troops to shoot down peaceful strikers at Goldfield, Nevada, they have not a word to say in condemnation.

These trust-controlled papers are very fond of giving advice to foreign Governments as to how to deal with the unemployed masses. They are now in a position where they can take some. Starvation is staring the masses in the face. The organised charitable institutions are utterly inadequate to deal with the situation already. The depression that began in 1893 lasted through 1894 and 1895 and 1896. If the trusts, as they did in 1893, leave the people to starve until the products in the storehouse have been used up or destroyed, they will find themselves confronted by a political crisis as well as an industrial one. It was the depression of 1894, 1895 and 1896 that started the Socialist agitation in this country. If the depression continues, the Socialist propaganda will sweep the country like a prairie fire. During the depression of 1894, 1895 and 1896 professional men were as badly off as mechanics and labourers. Thousands of them were reduced to the condition of tramps. It only needs a few more incidents such as the labour war in Colorado and Nevada, and the trial of Moyer, Heywood and Pettibone, to raise the common people. Greed of gain led the capitalists of Colorado into the career of crime so realistically described by Walter Hart in his "Scarlet Shadow". The society man or woman, almost dead with ennui, who has read and seen everything, has still something left to read if he or she has not seen this book. And the strangest thing about the book is that it is a chronicle of actual occurrences. There is no need in future for your enterprising newspaper correspondent in search of the sensational to undertake a hazardous journey to the wilds of Siberia. He can find stranger, wilder and more unbelievable things right here in this civilised country.

If he is anxious to find the latest thing in slavery, he has only to go to Georgia, Alabama or Florida. The name of it is Peonage. If he is desirous of learning the most approved method of executing criminals, let him go to Mississippi or Louisiana. The method of Judge Lynch may be slow, but it is sure, and the respectable citizen seems to find it entertaining. To find a race of people disfranchised because of the colour of its skin, you will have to come to the foremost Republic on the face of the earth.

As Shoforth is made to say, these things "happened in a country whose colonists rebelled against a trifling tax on tea, which few of them used, while their patriotic descendants, in the grip of the grafters, submit uncomplainingly to a tax on every necessary of life in order to maintain the costliest Government on the globe".

Respectfully yours,  
H. J. ROBERTSON.

#### AMERICAN SCHOOLS AND CHRISTMAS DAY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Torquay, 15 January, 1908.

SIR,—Your issue of 28 December contains a remarkable attack by "Christianus" on the schools of Boston, U.S.A. He tells an anecdote of a foolish publisher truckling to Jew prejudice, and asserts that it is fairly representative of conditions there. As a Bostonian I ask the use of your columns for a brief answer. I know the publishers whom "Christianus" denotes by his description. The partners have some sense of humour, and are by no means the dolts which such a story would prove them to be. I know enough of the Boston School Board and of American schools to have a right to deny that such an absurd story describes them.

The letter which I answer gives strong internal evidence of two things. First, it is likely that "Christianus" or his informant showed himself avid for this sort of tale, and that some Yankee humorist made up or dressed up one to suit. But the truth of the story does not matter. It is the attack on our schools and the assertion that such a story is typical which needs denial. And in the letter itself your readers will find an utter lack of argument or evidence to show this. Such a lack indicates that the letter was written and the attack made without investigation of our schools, as it surely was without foundation. And its author signs himself "Christianus" after a composition which shows neither faith, hope, nor charity!

I am, Sir, yours &c.

A BOSTONIAN.

[This letter is nothing but the retort discourteous, but it gives "Christianus" the opportunity to verify his statements; which we are bound to believe he can do.—ED. S.R.]

#### "INDIVIDUOLOGY."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

8, Adys Lawn, Willesden Green,

15 January, 1908.

SIR,—In last week's issue, in your review of the "Sociological Papers", vol. iii., you object to my use of the word individuology as being "a worse verbal monstrosity even than sociology". As this is an opinion which I cordially subscribe to, perhaps you will give me space to ask for suitable suggestions from your readers.

A more generally applicable word is however difficult to discover. Unique is not capable of inflection; unit is too vague in its meaning; person carries with it a mental connotation and could not be therefore applied to the study of vegetable as well as animal organisms. Identical nearly satisfies one and identics might be used for the comparative study of whole organisms, which is the subject I am interested in, but for the fact that no social or organic implications are conveyed by this word.

It has been pointed out to me by a writer of long experience on etymological problems that individual, used in this connexion, should be, under any circumstances, condemned, as it belongs to a group of words whose meaning has been falsified by careless usage. Dividual meaning something capable of division individual should signify something incapable and nothing more than this. It is therefore almost a ridiculous term to use for such complex structures as vegetable and animal organisms are.

While admitting the truth of both of these points of view I find myself compelled to use this very unsatisfactory word until a better is found. My adoption of it is therefore tentative only.

May I also remark that your reviewer has to some extent misunderstood my main contention? It is true that I do believe all organic types to be unmodifiable by, though they are to some extent responsive to, their surroundings. I also think that quite primitive human types exist in the most cultured nations. But as my central contention is that types are selected socially as a result of the action of disease germs, industrial strain and natural choice in marriage, it would be obviously impossible for me to hold the view "that man has altered little from paleolithic times". I maintain on the contrary that human, like other living forms evolve or degenerate with their environments. That there is a causal relation of a selective nature between the two.

It is common text-book knowledge that the more cultured races of mankind as a whole have a larger brain capacity than the more primitive ones. It is admitted by all social students that primitive peoples manifest fewer mental desires, whatever explanation is offered for the fact. And as I have pointed out in a work ("Aspects of Social Evolution") it is now fairly generally admitted among anthropologists that a macrodontic type, which necessarily possessed a large face with powerful jaws, has given way to a microdontic one with a small face. From studies of older pictures and statuary and from investigations into the past and present habits of human beings I have shown that

a large wide face in relation to a narrow head and flattened features is associated with more intense physical desires and less intense mental ones. Further I have maintained that in each race as it becomes more cultured—and conversely if it degenerates either as a whole or in one or more of its component parts—the physical type becomes less frequent and the mental more frequent. This view is not compatible with the idea that man is incapable of evolution.

Apologising for the unavoidable length of this letter, I remain yours faithfully,

J. LIONEL TAYLER.

[Etymologically, our objection to individuology is less to the individual element than to the barbarous mixture of Greek and Latin. It is worse than sociology because it sounds uglier.—Ed. S.R.]

#### THE L.C.C. AND EPILEPTIC CHILDREN.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

20 Queen's Road, Wimbledon, S.W.,  
13 January, 1908.

SIR,—Next week the Education Committee of the L.C.C. will have before them the question of dealing with three hundred and twenty epileptic children?

Mrs. Close's association has offered to take these children at from £16 to £20 per head on the farm-schools in New Brunswick, where the environment for these and all other children, from the hygienic and educational standpoint, is unique.

Earl Grey, the Governor-General of Canada, recently made a visit of inspection at the farms and was enthusiastic about the work being done there; a former Governor-General, the Duke of Argyll, is the chairman of the general committee; and in the "Times", 21 November 1907, appeared a letter signed by the Duke of Argyll, the Duchess of Buckingham and Chandos, Viscountess Barrington, the Earl Egerton of Tatton, the Bishop of London and Mrs. Ellinor C. L. Close, appealing for £5,000 to extend the operations of the association.

A very pleasing feature of the association's work is the training it offers to well-educated young women of the middle classes as nurse-teacher on the farms—a career worthy the acceptance of hundreds who otherwise would be a burden at home upon impoverished incomes. The work is pleasant, surroundings picturesque, the pay good—a tempting position for thousands of well-educated girls. Many who are now going out will find perchance—what they never will here—a husband, home and little ones in one of the grandest countries in the world.

The Bishop of S. Albans has recently returned from a visit of inspection, and, like Dr. Arthur Shadwell and other eminent men who have gone over the farms, cannot speak too highly of the work being done.

The ratepayers should understand the cost works out on these school-farms at over one-third less than the Poor Law schools at home, with advantages for the children mentally, morally and physically beyond any that can be obtained here.

This scheme strikes at the very root of pauperism.

Mrs. Close's address is 101 Eaton Square, S.W.

Yours faithfully,

H. R. GAWEN GOGAY.

#### THE VIRTUE OF A WORD.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

8 January, 1908.

SIR,—There is one cause of the Unionist failure in 1906 which has escaped notice—that is, the power of mere words. Thousands of electors who are anti-Socialist have been induced to vote for the Radical and Socialist candidate, as the representative of the "Liberal party". It is significant that the Socialist press was jubilant at what it called "the late Liberal victory". Party spirit, and the power of mere words, have had a great deal to do with the late "Liberal" success. Why have Radical and Socialist journalists and politicians been allowed to usurp the name of "Liberalism", to which they have not the shadow of a title?

I am, Sir, yours &c.,

AN OLD LIBERAL.

## REVIEWS.

### AMPHIBIOUS WAR.

"England in the Seven Years' War." By J. S. Corbett.  
2 vols. London: Longmans. 1907. 21s. net.

FOR some reason or other those weather-beaten veterans, whose warlike forms adorn the walls of the Painted Hall at Greenwich, failed to find utterance for the strategical ideas begot by experience which must have occupied a good share of space in their much bewigged heads. Perhaps their strenuous lives left them no leisure to think about benefiting posterity; perhaps, as Colomb has suggested, they seldom alluded to the causes of their successes or failures—unless indeed induced to break silence by the spectre of a court-martial—either because they took the causes for granted or believed them outside and beyond their control. It may be they did not fully understand the plot in which they themselves were the principal actors, and this is likely enough since Macaulay, with the whole past unrolled before him, could see nothing in the arrangements of Pitt to justify him in giving the great War Minister credit for profound or dexterous combination. "Several of his expeditions", that critic tells us, "particularly those which were sent to the coast of France, were at once costly and absurd." In presenting Pitt's war as it was seen and felt by the men who were concerned with its direction, Mr. Corbett incidentally corrects the fallacious statement and proves Pitt to have been a past master in the art of war. But Macaulay had some excuse for error, as the systematic study of strategic problems which take into consideration the combined action of fleets and armies is of recent growth. Since the War Course was first opened at Greenwich in 1900 it has made much progress, and in the common effort to strike bed-rock principles of amphibious strategy army and navy have already learnt to feel they are one service.

That part of the Seven Years' War commonly called for accuracy "the Maritime War" was essentially amphibious in character and bristles with precedents to help us ascertain how to make the best use of land and sea forces: in turning to it for an example of sea-power, Mahan, to prove his case, was not obliged to dwell at any length on the political situation which so largely affected naval and military dispositions. With Mr. Corbett the case is different; his object is to disentangle the principles of amphibious warfare from the maze in which they lie hidden, to draw from the seven years' contest the lessons that will lead to a clearer understanding of the functions of the fleet, and this involves a close examination of home and foreign politics, without which it would be unsafe to express an opinion upon the conduct of the great struggle. During a discussion at the Royal United Service Institution last year following a paper by Colonel Aston on "Combined Strategy of Fleets and Armies", Mr. Corbett briefly alluded to Pitt's system of carrying on the war. This system has been much misunderstood, and the glib assertion of Macaulay that Pitt assured his countrymen "that he would conquer America for them in Germany" has assisted to perpetuate the misconception of what it really was. On 13 November, 1761, when defending his policy, Pitt made his famous declaration, "America has been conquered in Germany"; but Mr. Corbett shows that the words used were not intended to be a scientific statement of the principle on which his war plan was framed, and should be considered merely "a defence of the principal containing or defensive operations without which his main attack could not have been made, and if made must in the end have been fruitless". Thanks to the existence of the Secret Committee of the Council, Pitt held an advantage in being able to wield army, navy, and diplomacy as if they were one weapon, and on analysing his system it will be found that the Fleet "is never used without some close relation to a military or diplomatic end, and conversely the army and diplomacy are always being worked to secure some point which will either strengthen the naval position, or relieve the fleet of some irksome pre-occupation"; so, handling army and navy together,



with his weather eye continually lifting on Hanover, Pitt fixed his gaze on the limited object of the war, the conquest of Canada. Choosing America for his offensive, he sent there all the troops that could be spared, and made use of the fleet in American waters to co-operate with the land force and maintain and cover its communications; in the home area he accepted the defensive, and consequently kept back no more of the army than was requisite for acting on defensive lines. Whilst the fleet was employed to blockade the enemy's ports and cover the offensive movement in the Far West, it was also utilised to give the land force mobility and ability to frustrate the French offensive by way of counter-attack and diversion. When the operations in the East and West Indies come to be considered, the important distinction drawn by Mr. Corbett between limited and unlimited war compels attention. If a war be waged to obtain a definite advantage, such as trading rights or a piece of territory, it is limited; if to destroy entirely the national power of an enemy, it is unlimited; and as one side gains the upper hand in the area of the limited object, war limited at the outset often becomes unlimited in character. The equality in naval strength of the combatants on the Indian station is sufficient to show there was no design to command the sea there, and even the news of Plassey did not affect the concentration upon America; the East Indian area fell outside the zone of Pitt's plan, though the stupendous results of the struggle between French and English in the East rather obscure this fact.

At the beginning of the war, the strife in the East Indies comes under the head of Commerce Protection, but later, when France beaten in America tried to recover ground by making the war unlimited, and found her attempt at invasion foiled by Boscawen and Hawke, the General Pressure stage was near at hand and the contemplated expedition against Mauritius and Bourbon appears as part of the enlarged scheme to force France to acknowledge her impotence and accept the situation. West Indian waters formed another minor theatre, where at first the dispositions and operations, though modified by questions of keeping open military communications, were made and undertaken for the protection and destruction of commerce. The enormous financial interests at stake however in that part of the world prompted Pitt to take the direct offensive there as soon as he felt strong enough; therefore, towards the close of 1758, Territory replaced Trade as the main object for assault. Mr. Corbett distinguishes this taking of the offensive in the West Indies from an Extension of the Main Attack: put shortly, territory in the West Indies was wanted for bartering purposes, and unless this difference in ulterior object be remembered, it is impossible to understand the strategy of Pitt or appreciate his genius.

At the United Service Institution Lord Roberts commented on the difficulty of finding the right man to direct operations on both elements: fortunately for England when the storm-cloud burst, the right man was on the spot and—that man was Pitt: he it was who taught his country how to protect her coasts against the invader and how to enforce her will in the more remote regions of the earth; a practical exponent of the influence of sea-power, long before the word sea-power was invented he laid bare the secret he had wrung from the deep. Mr. Corbett takes good care to notice the weak points in the Great Commoner's policy and weighs its merits with judicial impartiality; though his book is full of lessons in the art of war he never allows himself to dogmatise, and the same legally trained instinct which makes him chary of drawing conclusions from events prevents him from passing harsh sentences on men's actions. Mr. Corbett puts plenty of life and movement into his history and gives us every opportunity to see "great men of action struggling with the inexorable laws of strategy or riding on them in mastery to the inevitable catastrophe".

#### VENICE AND ASSASSINATION.

"Studies in Venetian History." By Horatio F. Brown. 2 vols. London: Murray. 1907. 18s. net.

NOTHING better illustrates the immense strides made within the last century in historical knowledge than a comparison of such a work as Mr. Horatio Brown's "Venetian Studies" with the best fruit of labour and research three generations since—the "Histoire de Venise" of Daru, for instance. To the French writer, a man of diligence and learning, the early history of Venice before (let us say) the invasion of Pipin is incomprehensible. He notes that doges were elected sometimes at Heraclea, sometimes at Malamocco; but he knows nothing of the motives of these changes or the fierce rivalries which dictated them. He is apparently aware that the rough jottings of the chronicles indicate contests of profound interest and moment, but he seems to despair of elucidating them, and hurries forward in his narrative to ages where the motives of events are more easily disclosed.

What Daru did not know is now well known. Wider research has brought other facts to light, and historical imagination has bound them together and built on them till the whole story is reconstructed with probability and truth. Mr. Brown, to whose investigations, as well as to his father's, all who love Venice owe a deep debt of gratitude and respect, tells the story lucidly and ably, showing us Heraclea as the seat of aristocratic and Byzantine influence, Malamocco as the centre of the popular party which inclined towards the Western Empire. Between these rival powers Venice balanced itself with incredible adroitness, tending always towards allegiance to that one least able to enforce it; and out of the perpetual watchfulness engendered by the resolve to remain independent between these two extremes, advancing or retreating in accordance with the one guiding principle of liberty, grew the wisest statesmanship in Europe. Venice was at all times practical. Her deeds were superscribed with the name of the Eastern Emperor, yet she paid tribute for commercial privileges to the Lombards at Pavia. If a doge inclined too far towards Byzantium, he was murdered like Orso; if, like Obelerio, he tended to ally the state with the Frankish Empire, he was driven out. So, avoiding entanglements of every kind, guarded from all attack by the sea and the shoals of the lagoon, the ocean city went on from strength to strength, till at last the rivalries of Heraclea and Malamocco were ended by a compromise which itself was a masterpiece of wisdom, the seat of government was established at Rialto, and the Venice which the whole world knows to-day came into existence. Men say the ruins of Heraclea are still seen underneath the water. Of its rival city the tale is shorter still. "Malamocco sommerse", says Sanudo.

Mr. Brown's essays are on wisely chosen subjects, and illustrate almost continuously the development and growth of the city. On all constitutional points he is admirably lucid; and his researches among the archives have enabled him to write most instructively on a variety of subjects, such as Venetian diplomacy at the Porte, concerning which little knowledge is accessible elsewhere. When he turns to the strange and vexed subject of political assassination, Mr. Brown lays too much stress on the doctrines of those casuists and political writers who at one time or another have justified the act. The speculations of those learned men are indeed full of interest. They show what scoundrelly conclusions men may arrive at who take intellect only for their guide. There were of course many such men in Italy, as elsewhere, during the Middle Ages. They were worldly-wise to a degree since unknown, and regarded the whole duty of a man of sense as summed up in the following maxim: "If you see your enemy in the water up to his waist, give him your hand and help him out: but if you see him up to his neck, put your foot upon his head and press him under." But men of these views, when their thoughts ran on murder, sought no justification from political writers. They found it in their hearts.

Murder, however much one may lament it, is an instinct of morbid natures, repressed by law and to some extent by Christianity. "Uomo morto non fa."

guerra"—"Dead men don't bite"—it is a sentiment as old as the hills, and is of practical utility likely to commend itself to the minds of base men in difficulties until the arrival of those golden days when "*omnis feret omnia tellus*", and the herds will cease to fear the mighty lions. "The men who formulated political assassination", says Mr. Brown, "believed that they were placing in the hands of princes a weapon which would permanently enrich the armoury of States." Very possibly they did, for the experience of all ages shows that the literary man, reasoning upon the motives of events, constantly exaggerates the value of his speculations. But has any treatise ever penned by man affected materially the number of murders in the world, diplomatic or otherwise? One may imagine Alfonso of Naples—he who fled before the French invasion—or Filippo Maria Visconti laying down with a smile of sympathy a tract which justified assassination, scanning its pages for ideas, and sending a hundred ducats to the writer. But the satisfaction lay not in the acquisition of a new weapon, but in finding certain bloody deeds which were desired set in a better light by the application of general maxims newly stated. We cannot believe that when Alfonso did that deed in the Church of San Lorenzo on the Chiaia to which Guicciardini alludes as it were with bated breath he was moved by any motive other than practical utility, as he conceived it, stimulated probably by a morbid lust of cruelty. It is indeed the one motive of utility, uncontrolled by any of the restraining influences of Christianity, which seems to explain the constant resource to assassination in mediæval Italy. Then, as now, the Italian mind was intensely practical. It saw its problems very clearly outlined, and was impatient of solutions which hung on doubtful or ideal considerations. It applied in a sinister sense the Pauline maxim "So run that ye may obtain". Such was in fact the idea of "*virtù*", the power to drive things through, on which Machiavelli lavished admiration. Practical advantage—such and no other was the test by which Italian statesmen weighed their purposes. What the world might think of them was obviously of some consequence, because general odium is a power capable of creating embarrassment; and hence the desirability of maintaining secrecy. We do not credit the Venetian Council of Ten with any qualms of conscience when they surveyed the lists of those to be removed for the advantage of the republic. Conscience in its modern sense would have seemed to them a weakness as reprehensible as that of a Civil servant who cannot brace himself to perform a disagreeable duty.

In regard to the use and preparation of poisons, Mr. Brown brings together many curious and interesting facts. No insinuation was more common in the Middle Ages than that which attributed the death of prominent persons to poison. Mr. Brown is of much the same mind on this subject as Bishop Creighton, who ranked the professional poisoner with the astrologer and other charlatans; and indeed the most learned masters in this art appear to have been comparatively harmless, as was shown in 1514, when Venice suffered the dire misfortune of losing by fire its poison cupboard and all that was therein. Vilandrino of Padua was called in to make good the loss, but his best receipt failed to do the slightest harm to one Mustafa, on whom it was tried twice; and so Vilandrino was packed off about his business. Such was the result when the richest power in Italy sought poison in what was doubtless the most likely market, and that within ten years of the death of the Borgias. The inference is obvious.

#### AN AMERICAN HOMERIST.

"Life in the Homeric Age." By Thomas Day Seymour. London: Macmillan. 1907. 17s. net.

PROFESSOR SEYMOUR has turned his collections of Homeric usage into a limpid and agreeable book. It is a kind of running Buchholz, not as systematic but naturally more readable, and to be recommended to those who require prompt information about the birds, beasts and fishes, the worship, medicine and meals of the "*Iliad*" and "*Odyssey*". Like most

American work it is not original, but it has the qualities we expect in the New England savant, coolness, common-sense and impartiality. In its candour and freedom from preconceived theory it is a good sequel to Manatt's adaptation of Tsountas' book upon the heroic sites of Greece.

Mr. Seymour has chosen to write out the statements contained in Homer without much reference to the monuments. He has seen that to do this the substantial homogeneity of the poems must be assumed. No other method in fact is feasible if general conclusions at all are to be drawn; the systems of dismemberment, however lyrically pushed, are still entirely subjective. Mr. Myres has made the same hypothesis the basis of his inquiry into the Pelasgians, and the solid results so obtained, whether in ethnology or civilisation, must have a back-working effect in the direction of the essential unity of the two epics. Mr. Seymour's introduction, perhaps the latest part of his book, is a model of independence and detachment. No countenance is given to Mr. Burrows' cheerful conjectures, Crete does not loom on the horizon, the Ker and the Tribal God are alike happily away. The author adds many quaint illustrations from Holy Writ, Indian and American habits, and quotations from Milton and Coleridge which seem to indicate that to the American scientist we over here are all equally antique. Use also is made of writers whom we do not often meet on this side, President Warren and Miss Agnes Clerke.

This is very well so far as it goes, but it hardly bears out the promise of a large book, price seventeen shillings. At the present stage of the Homeric question the first qualification for adding to the literature is a rigorous examination of every theory before it is accepted. Otherwise, as we see on every hand, every writer begins where the last left off, plants his own contribution on the top of the old, and the pyramid, for years swinging on its apex, approaches a degree nearer its certain downfall. This charge, indeed, cannot be laid at Mr. Seymour's door. Still two things are plain: his book consists of material which he has long had in stock, and which has caught the opinions in vogue at the periods when it was collected—(if the accepted method of science were applied to Mr. Seymour he would come out a palpable school in process of evolution)—and secondly, he has tried, within limits, to please everybody. Thus we find him accepting Reichel's view of Homeric armour, though the interpretations and excisions which it demands should surely be too much for any present-day mind. He was too early for "Homer and his Age", else he might have subscribed to Mr. Lang's view of the function of bronze and iron in Homer, for which evidence from the strangest quarters is accumulating. Then again Mr. Seymour is blind to the difficulties involved in the dance of names in the Cefalonia archipelago. Since the Dormouse's tea-party the world has not seen such a moving up of one as the islands must undergo if Ithaca is Santa Maura. It is true the collective wisdom of the Hellenic Society did not boggle at the thought, though no proof was led; but Mr. Seymour, miles across the blue, might have held back. The evidence of *ω* 377 and M. Bérard's description of the canal in the lagoon should have sunk deeper. At one moment he doubts that Argos, like the Casa santa at Loreto, flew from Thessaly—which was not Thessaly—to Argolis; at another, and several others, he hugs the comfortable vision of "the northern Argos, Thessaly". Here Mr. Myres was too late to set him right. The account of the nostos of Agamemnon, *δ* 512 sqq., has suffered some "confusion", because a forgotten pedant of the early nineteenth century could not conceive how Agamemnon on his way back to Argos should have come near Malea. But Mr. Seymour, who seems to have some respect for the Catalogue, should have realised that Agamemnon had no port upon the eastern side of Greece; hence he appointed Aulis as the rendezvous, hence he and his Arcadians, like Menelaus, Nestor and Ulysses, had to weather Malea; and only Nestor got past it without damage. Ulysses was blown to Kythera; Agamemnon managed to make the district which Egisthus inherited from his father Thyestes. This, to judge from the villages which Agamemnon is able to offer Achilles, was in Messenia; and with his brother in Lacedæmon



and his cousin in Messenia the island of Pelops must have fairly belonged to the head of the house. After refitting, the King of Men and his fleet made an uneventful voyage to Ægium or Lechæum on his côte d'azur, the horse-feeding Argos. Was the life depicted in the "Iliad" "demoralised"? Does not a campaign evoke at any rate certain virtues? Our latest exegete tells us the whole armada was under a vow! On these and other points Mr. Seymour might have taken the trouble to make up his mind.

However, no one who reads the book through, even though he be at home in the poet, will fail to be reminded of much he had forgotten, and even informed of a good deal he did not know, and he will appreciate some excellent photographs, and he will feel that notes such as "*κρύσταλλος*, cf. crystal" and "ornithes, cf. ornithology" guarantee that no class in the kingdom of letters has been forgotten.

#### "THE GREAT AUK'S GHOST."

"Extinct Birds." By the Hon. W. Rothschild. London: Hutchinson. 1907. £25.

THE drawing of most of the birds in this book is not altogether satisfactory. They look rather stiff and artificial; moreover, in one or two cases there is a discrepancy between the illustration and the description in the text. Several of the figures, too, are admittedly in part imaginary, drawn from ancient descriptions, and we doubt very much if such illustrations are worth the money they must have cost to produce. The letterpress is clear and brief, though not without some faults in style, especially in translation. The author has attempted to give an account of the birds which have become extinct in historical times, but he includes a good many only known from bones. The dodo and Great Auk are treated with what many people will think undue brevity, but it must be remembered that each of them—the best-known of extinct birds—has a volume to itself by another author.

It is a sad fact that the extinction of birds appears to be chiefly due to man. In some cases the causes are unavoidable, and inseparably connected with occupation of new countries. We cannot help cutting down forests to clear land for cultivation; and the lives of many birds are as much bound up with those of the trees they haunt as were the lives of the dryads of classical mythology. Nor can we do without pigs and poultry; and pigs are among the worst exterminators of any groundling creatures such as flightless birds, while with fowls are likely to come diseases which will rage in the virgin ground of a long-isolated bird population. The killing of birds for food has also been, in past times at all events, largely a matter of necessity, so that destruction by direct attack was also among things inevitable. Inevitable also, under all conditions up to now, has been the attendance on man by his parasite the rat, which is a far worse scourge than the pig; and the cat and mongoose, introduced to keep the rat in check, have done their best to assist his ravages.

It is extremely doubtful if introduced birds have had much influence in this direction; Mr. Rothschild cites the mynah as a destructive agent, but this species lives in its home in India in great numbers with smaller and weaker birds, and is itself a good sentinel against predatory creatures. If imported birds have been at all guilty, it is more likely to have been in the way of acting as disease or parasite carriers among the feathered aborigines.

None of the birds on Mr. Rothschild's list has succumbed to persecution for purposes of dress—a rather curious fact, in view of the appalling destruction of bird-life that has been wrought in the cause of fashion.

On the other hand, it seems clear that the worst enemies of species that have seriously declined in numbers are pseudo-ornithologists themselves. The last survivors are eagerly snapped up for public museums, or, worse still, for private collections. It is significant that some years ago the New Zealand Government had to pass a law prohibiting the export of their native birds, out of which some of the local

naturalists had been making an "uncommonly good thing" pecuniarily. It is time that some lay authority took these quasi-scientists in hand, and prevented them from obstructing science in the future by ruthlessly exterminating species which might have been preserved, in order to exalt their own petty little reputations, if not to fill their pockets.

Some species seem, quite inexplicably, to have died out so suddenly, although previously very numerous, as to give but little chance of saving them. Of such was the Passenger Pigeon of North America, once quite common and now reduced to five specimens living in an aviary, for which, as they are the remains of the descendants of one pair, fresh companions have been vainly sought. Another was the New Zealand quail, which disappeared completely in a few years. Yet even of these enough specimens could probably have been got to keep the species going in captivity if as much trouble had been taken over live birds as is habitually expended on skins.

Mr. Rothschild includes in his book one or two species of birds which are not yet extinct—such as Meyer's Pigeon of Mauritius, specimens of which are now living at the Zoological Gardens—and gives a long list of others in his opinion threatened with extinction: but he has no suggestions to make for their saving. A good deal might be done, however, not only by reservations devoted to birds and by protective laws, but by appointing special keepers to kill down the enemies, natural or introduced, of such forms, and by transporting them to places where they do not naturally occur, and where conditions may possibly be more favourable. For instance, the Mauritian pigeon, it seems, is grievously harassed by monkeys of an introduced species; it surely would be no great matter to organise a war of extermination against the monkeys, and to transport a few pairs of the birds to other islands where pigeons are wanting.

So long, however, as naturalists, so-called, prefer studying birds' skins to birds in their skins, and regard the cultivation of any live things as a childish pastime, we must expect the kind of thing to go on which has resulted in the melancholy fate of so many species.

One thing however strikes one in reading through this certainly remarkable work: from the æsthetic and the scientific point of view, we have not lost so very much in the vanished birds it records—things might have been very much worse. The loss of a number of degenerate flightless birds, and of divers insignificant parrots, is as nothing to the calamity that would have been the extinction of the peacock or the swans; the hoatzin with its strange half-reptilian young, climbing with their clawed wings; the bower-birds, more human than early man in their architectural and æsthetic instincts; or the humming-birds. All these have a strong hold on life, and before they are in any danger of extinction it may be hoped the public will know how to keep the ornithologist in his place, and see that birds are studied alive, not merely in museums.

#### AN APOLOGY FOR ANTI-RELIGION.

"Church and State in France." By Arthur Galton. London: Arnold. 1907. 12s. 6d.

THE Rev. A. Galton has written a book on "Church and State in France", which, coming from one who professes to know what he is writing about, is, to say the least of it, an amazing exhibition of unfairness and inaccuracy: all the more so as Mr. Galton was at one time, before receiving Anglican orders, a Roman Catholic priest. In Mr. Galton's eyes, as indeed in those of other ill-informed people, the French Government is the best and most generous that has ever been, and its treatment of the Roman Church in France, and of Christianity in general, not only admirable, but superlatively so. To point out Mr. Galton's numerous errors, most of them due to his persistent prejudice against the Church of which he was at one time a devout member, would occupy as many pages as the book itself. In the preface, for instance, he describes Mgr. Montagnini as "in the position of an ambassador

who refused to go after the rupture of relations and the declaration of war". Mgr. Montagnini was, needless to say, never "in the position of an ambassador", and he never "refused to go" from Paris: as a matter of fact, he was not given the option. He was there in no official capacity whatever, and he was not sent to Paris either by the Pope or Cardinal Merry del Val, but by Mgr. Lorenzelli, the last Nuncio, who, having been recalled, asked him as a friend to take charge of the papers belonging to the Nunciature, which he was obliged to leave behind. This Mgr. Montagnini agreed to do. Being an intimate friend of the Cardinal Secretary of State, he wrote to that prelate a number of private letters on French affairs, letters which were not in any way official; moreover, to aid him in composing his account of the day's events, Mgr. Montagnini made undated notes with reference to the people he had seen, passing events, &c. M. Clemenceau was just then in search of a diversion: so Mgr. Montagnini's papers were seized, and his undated notes published as the actual letters addressed by him to Cardinal Merry del Val. As the incident of these letters is so recent as not to need recapitulation, we will content ourselves with saying that had M. Clemenceau paid less attention to their trivialities and more to the very serious viticultural question, he would have spared himself, his country and his party a good deal of serious trouble.

Taking into consideration the above facts, it is difficult to conceive why Mr. Galton should describe the Montagnini letters as "documents which have no right to exist". As it has turned out, they contained nothing of the least political importance, and not a single reference to the Abbé Jouin of S. Augustin—Mgr. Montagnini's alleged fellow-conspirator in a plot to overthrow the Republic—who was absolutely unknown to the Italian prelate! The Abbé Jouin was tried on his own account, and as good as acquitted with a fine of less than 20s., imposed for the grave offence of having thanked his parishioners for defending his church on the occasion of the taking of the inventories: an affair which had nothing whatever to do with the charge of conspiracy, which was eventually dropped altogether. As to the Monsignore, the gods have indeed favoured him; and even Mr. Galton has by this time, we may presume, come to the conclusion that, after all, "the violation of hospitality", upon which he dwells so emphatically, was not on the part of Mgr. Montagnini but on that of M. Clemenceau, who published as diplomatic letters a series of private notes whose contents had been altered by "incompetent translators".

The Rev. W. Galton poses as an orthodox Christian, and he is described as the vicar of a parish of the Church of England, from which he presumably receives a stipend. And this so-called Churchman admires the atheistical schools which have sprung up all over France, thanks to the "legislation of Jules Ferry and Paul Bert", and which he believes will bring about "the victory of the Third Republic". This victory, which he evidently desires and believes in, is that "of State and official atheism over Christianity"! Mr. Galton still believes—even after the opéra-bouffe adventures of M. des Houx and "Archbishop Valette (whose episcopal mitre was seized for debt, and who has now departed for Chicago, where he is well known)"—in the possibility of a schism in the French Church. If, however, Mr. Galton knew his France as well as he thinks he does, he would realise that there is too much indifference, if not absolute hatred of Catholicism, in the one camp, and too much zeal and even fanaticism in the other, to render a schism possible, at least in our time. The war is not between various sects of Christianity but between religion and no religion—belief and unbelief.

Until, indeed, a writer appreciates this fundamental fact, he must perforce remain incompetent to write logically upon the subject of the separation of the Church and State in France. If the anti-theists are right, no doubt the attitude of the French Government is admirable: Christianity being proved a falsehood, an "enlightened Government" is perfectly right in endeavouring, by every means at its disposal, "to liberate the conscience of the people and of their children" from its superstitious influence. But if Christianity is a living truth, then the Government which seeks to destroy

it is acting blasphemously, and indirectly working at its own destruction, as well as that of the nation over whose destinies it presides—since existing society is built upon Christian ethics and not upon secularist theories. There is no half-way house in this matter; and Mr. Galton, who labours so hard to make good the cause of the French Government, would do well to reflect seriously on the propriety of a Christian minister defending the action of a distinctly anti-theistic Ministry towards a religion in which he professes to believe.

Mr. Galton's long list of the authorities he has consulted is meant to be impressive, but on a closer inspection the initiated will soon perceive that out of some hundred names of authors given, there are not more than half a dozen belonging to writers on the Christian, let alone the Catholic, side. Nor is this all: some of the "authorities" scarcely merit so high-sounding a title. M. Jean de Bonnefons, for instance, who has been frequently convicted of deliberate falsehood, hardly deserves such honour, or to be quoted by a writer who pretends to be serious. In short, Mr. Galton's list of authorities does not bear too close an inspection, for, like his book, it is wordy—and little more!

#### NOVELS.

"**Rubina.**" By James Blyth. London: John Long. 1908. 6s.

In Mr. Blyth's novels there is always the charm due to the atmosphere and the setting of the still marsh-land scenery, with its rich lush pastures, grey-green willows and watery wastes. The mist of the fens harmonises with the eeriness and mystery, the witchlore and superstition of the marsh-country. Mr. Blyth draws well enough the East Anglian marshmen and peasants, with their cunning and ignorance, their immorality and animalism; but they are not so amusing as some peasant portraits. That however may be the fault of the models as well as of Mr. Blyth, who does not shine in the way of humour. The best part of "Rubina" is the study of the girl herself, a beautiful, full-blooded creature, a healthy animal, who if somewhat more refined than her sisters of the marsh, shares their undeveloped sense of honour and lax ideas of morality. Unable to appreciate the self-restraint of her betrothed she takes another lover during his absence, and then, having by singular good fortune evaded the dire results of her duplicity and indiscretion, marries her original sweetheart, who preserves his faith in her to the end. Rubina is certainly not an ideal heroine; she is only a very ordinary woman who follows the dictates of nature in a way which Mr. Blyth says is more than ordinarily common in the Fen district. The story opens extremely well, but towards the end shows evidence of being completed hurriedly and carelessly. The subject is treated naturally and unconventionally in a common-sense way, without any attempt to point a moral. The idea is admirable, but the plan is a great deal better than the execution. Several of the characters are weakly drawn, and even "Bina" is somewhat superficially treated.

"**Captain Dallington.**" By Katharine S. Macquoid. Bristol: Arrowsmith. 1907. 6s.

Miss Macquoid has hardly the vivacity or high spirits necessary to commend a romance of highwaymen to the twentieth-century reader. The materials are all so familiar and in this book they are not presented with the saving quality of humour. We cannot take much interest in the disowned youth of good birth who, ignorant of his origin, allows himself to be led away by a plausible adventurer and become a knight of the road. But the great Sarah Duchess of Marlborough appears for a moment with effect. Whether that astute lady would have been completely taken in by Captain Dallington, a broken soldier turned freebooter, when he took the place of an officer carrying despatches, is doubtful, but Miss Macquoid has successfully studied the manners and ways of the Duchess. We note with amazement that an English officer bringing despatches



home from Marlborough's campaign against the French travels through Paris without the least difficulty or disguise!

"The White Wedding." By M. Shiel. London: Laurie. 1908. 6s.

On the very first page of "The White Wedding" we read that Arthur's "looks hankered towards the door", a little later on Rosie is described as "quite wannish now, looking as divine as whitish violets"; and a parson observes, "I also have every hope that God will go with him, for he goes, to begin with, with a box of bile beans which I myself placed in his waistcoat pocket"; so we are prepared for the extremely violent eccentric garb in which "M. Shiel" clothes the expression of a disordered, feverish imagination. He is apparently convinced that his style is forcible and expressive to the point of genius, that his characters are powerful creations, and his freakish plot quite probable and lifelike.

#### SHORTER NOTICES.

"Bath under Beau Nash." By Lewis Melville. London: Nash. 15s. net.

We are somewhat doubtful whether the life of Beau Nash adds much to the amusement or profit of people to-day. The name has now little but a faded fame, and Mr. Melville's account, which must have cost him a great deal of research and trouble, certainly does not exhibit a hero or a very useful member of society. Still this is a quite honest bit of book-making, and neither author nor publisher has spared pains to turn out an attractive volume. Nash was an adventurer and a gambler, who by brass rather than brain made for himself an extraordinarily strong position in the most fashionable health "resort" in England during the first half of the eighteenth century. He was more than Master of the Ceremonies at Bath: he was almost its king. His vanity Mr. Melville makes clear, but Nash seems to have had a kind heart and would sometimes do really good deeds, despite the trumpery and foppishness of his daily life. He would be at the trouble to warn strangers of difficulty or danger with which they were threatened; and, strange in such a character, although he appears to have had plenty of physical bravery, he set himself the task of abolishing the duel as a fashionable and necessary habit in gentlemen. In Bath itself he actually succeeded to a large extent. Lecky praised Nash for this. "Between 1720 and 1730 it was observed that young men of fashion in London had begun to lay aside their swords, which were hitherto looked upon as the indispensable signs of a gentleman. Beau Nash made a great step in the same direction by absolutely prohibiting swords within his dominions, and this was perhaps the beginning of a change of fashion which appears to have been general about 1780, and which has a real historical importance as reflecting and sustaining the pacific habits that were growing in society." Mr. Melville gives an entertaining account of gaming in the days of Nash. There was practically no interference with the custom then, although as early as 1663 a law had been passed that any person losing, by betting or playing, more than £100 at a sitting need not pay unless he chose. We have lately been reading a number of family papers and letters relating to the first quarter of the eighteenth century, and they show that even the most respectable and quiet-living folk were constantly craving for the excitements of lotteries and play.

"Pillow-Lace." By Elizabeth Mincoff and Margaret S. Marriage. London: Murray. 1907. 15s.

Pillow-lace has the advantage over embroidery and crewel-work, and similar efforts, that its possibilities of ugliness are infinitely less. There is no variety of colour and material, nothing but white linen thread, and given a tolerable pattern and ordinary care something effective and really useful may be produced. Mrs. Mincoff and Mrs. Marriage have between them produced an admirable handbook of practical use. It is not intended to be a book on lace for connoisseurs, but a guide to amateurs in the actual making of lace. The first chapters contain a short historical survey of the art of lace-making from its earliest known period, that is to say about the year 1520; also brief accounts of its manufacture in different countries and towns. The rest of the book, from the third chapter to the last, is entirely practical, describing tools and methods of lace-making, and giving a large number of patterns with full explanations, and working diagrams, and directions for tracing and rubbing. Mrs. Mincoff assures us that the difficulty of the work is not formidable, "a few simple turns of the bobbins, once thoroughly understood and remembered, form the key to the most intricate laces. And from almost the very first the worker is making something really desirable; the narrowest, simplest lace looks well . . . the bright pillow, the quaint bobbins, the many-coloured pins are undeniably attractive."

(Continued on page 86.)

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"In Australian Tropics." By Alfred Searcy. London: Kegan Paul. 1907. 10s. 6d. net.

If this book does not quite work up to the lively expectations raised by Mr. Ernest Whittington when in his introduction he says both Mr. Louis Becke and Mr. Frank Bullen told Mr. Searcy that they could knock together a dozen books out of his experiences, it is nevertheless an entertaining and in its way valuable account of the Northern Territory of South Australia at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries. Mr. Searcy was for fourteen years sub-collector of Customs at Port Darwin, and whether he was dealing with the master of Malay proas, shooting buffalo, exploring rivers, or taking precautions against native treachery or the invasion of innumerable pests, such as flying ants, his days were varied and full of excitement. His book will leave a very different impression of the country from that which is generally held, and, all trials and drawbacks notwithstanding, it is easy to understand the regret with which he said farewell to Port Darwin in order to take up the position of Clerk Assistant in the House of Assembly. "I honestly believe that not a day has passed since I departed from the dear old place that I have not thought about it, and in my mind felt the hard, dry, cold south-easters and listened to the plaintive 'Klee klee' of the Cromli kites, for to me these birds are always associated with the south-easters." And the nor'-wester, following a south-easter, had the effect on men similar to that, "so I am credibly informed, of a bottle of good champagne on a person after a bad night". The illustrations are numerous and assist the reader to realise scenes which Mr. Searcy describes with so graphic a pen.

"Looking Seaward Again." By Sir Walter Runciman. London: The Walter Scott Publishing Co. 1907. 3s. 6d.

Sir Walter Runciman prefaces these sketches, or rather "tales", as he calls them, of the seaward days to which he looks back, with a wholly unnecessary apology for his literary limitations. He tells of the doings of some sea-dogs of the 'seventies with a vigour and a simplicity of style that are quite engaging. "The stories themselves", he says, "only claim to be unvarnished matters of fact." It is well to have his assurance; otherwise we should have concluded that they were due to a strong imagination working in local conditions with which he has been familiar. The first story, "Through Torpedoes and Ice", for instance, describes how an English captain ran the gauntlet of mines and ice in the Black Sea immediately after the fall of Plevna, and the fact in no way falls short of the fiction to which we generally look for such escapades. It is a pity Sir Walter Runciman has introduced a political note into these admirable sketches. "A Russian Port in the 'Sixties" concludes with the statement that English feeling concerning the struggle for freedom in Russia "was well expressed by the statesman who had the courage to say publicly 'Long live the Duma!'" The extent to which English feeling was expressed is of course a purely personal and political opinion of Sir Walter Runciman.

"A Practical Guide to the Game Laws." By Charles Row. London: Longmans. 1907. 5s. net.

Though the book is written by a solicitor, it is not intended for use by lawyers, but for the instruction and amusement of country gentlemen and all other persons whose duties or pleasures give them an interest in understanding the working of the Game Laws. Mr. Row is the secretary to the East Anglian Game Protection Society, and he is evidently an enthusiast whose experience enables him to deal with the subject exactly as it should be dealt with to serve the purposes of those for whom it is written. There is more than law in the book. There is natural history, and scenes and incidents of country life, country characters and country ways which remind one of the squire, chairman of his sessions, drawing from a rich store of legal and personal experiences for the pleasure of attentive guests at his dinner-table.

"The Practical Statutes of 1907." Edited by James Sutherland Cotton. London: "Law Times" Office. 1907.

With the regularity of the years themselves the well-known "Practical Statutes" appear. It is unnecessary to say more than that this collection is the most convenient and useful of all for the politician or political writer to have in his library. The historical introductions to the several statutes are excellent always. For illustration we may mention that to the Probation of Offenders Act (1907), which shows what effect the previous Act has had and the reasons which have led to its extension. Thus the collection serves much more than the lawyer's purpose.

For this Week's Books see page 88.

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BEFORE The LORD CHIEF JUSTICE OF ENGLAND, Lord JUSTICE BUCKLEY and Lord JUSTICE KENNEDY,  
On WEDNESDAY, 11th day of DECEMBER, 1907,

IN AN ACTION OF

REY and OTHERS on behalf of themselves and all other Members of THE CARTHUSIAN ORDER and OTHERS,  
v.  
HENRI LECOUTURIER, GEORGE IDLE CHAPMAN & Co., Limited, W. H. GARRETT and LA COMPAGNIE  
FERMIÈRE DE LA GRANDE CHARTREUSE.

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COUPONS and DIVIDEND WARRANTS paid by the London Office to Shareholders resident in France, and COUPONS paid by the Compagnie Française de Mines d'Or et de l'Afrique du Sud, Paris, will be subject to a deduction on account of French Transfer Duty and French Income Tax.

## GLEN DEEP, LIMITED.

Declaration of Dividend No. 7.

An INTERIM DIVIDEND of 7½ per cent. (One shilling and sixpence per Share) has been declared by the Board for the half-year ending 31st of JANUARY, 1908.

This Dividend will be payable to all Shareholders registered in the books of the Company at the close of business on 31st of January, 1908, and to holders of COUPON No. 7 attached to Share Warrants to Bearer.

The Transfer Books will be closed from 1st to 7th of February, 1908, both days inclusive.

The Dividend will be payable to South African registered Shareholders from the Head Office, Johannesburg, and to European Shareholders from the London Office, No. 1 London Wall Buildings, E.C., on or about 6th of March, 1908.

HOLDERS OF SHARE WARRANTS TO BEARER are informed that they will receive payment of the Dividend on presentation of COUPON No. 7, at the London Office of the Company.

COUPONS must be left FOUR CLEAR DAYS for examination, and will be payable at any time on or after the 6th of March, 1908.

## NATIONAL DISCOUNT COMPANY, Limited.

Subscribed Capital	..	..	..	£4,233,385
Paid Up	..	..	..	846,665
Reserve Fund	..	..	..	400,000

Notice is hereby given that the RATES OF INTEREST allowed for Money on deposit are REDUCED as follows:—

To Three and a Half per Cent. per annum at call.

To Three and Three-quarters per Cent. at seven and fourteen days' notice.

PHILIP HAROLD WADE, Manager.

Approved mercantile bills discounted. Loans granted upon negotiable securities. Money received on deposit at call and short notice, and interest allowed at the current market rates, and for longer periods upon specially agreed terms.

No. 35 Cornhill, E.C., 16th January, 1908.



**PRELIMINARY ANNOUNCEMENT.****COLONY OF NATAL.****NO PART OF THIS ISSUE HAS BEEN UNDERWRITTEN.**

The Subscription List will close both for Town and Country on or before the 23rd day of January, 1908.

# The VRYHEID (Natal)

## Railway, Coal and Iron Company, Limited.

(Incorporated under the Companies Acts, 1862-1900).

**CAPITAL - - - £500,000**

DIVIDED INTO

325,000 7½ per cent. Cumulative Participating Preference Shares of £1 each ... .. £325,000  
 AND  
 175,000 Ordinary Shares of £1 each ... .. £175,000

The Vendor accepts the Ordinary Shares in part payment.

The Vendor guarantees the full 7½ per cent. on the Preference Shares for two years from the date of the Company's incorporation, all monies so paid by the Vendor being repayable out of any surplus profits that may remain in any subsequent year after payment of the full Preference Dividend.

The Preference Shares also participate in one half of the surplus profits available for dividend each year after 7½ per cent. has been paid on the Ordinary Shares (the latter being cumulative as from December 31, 1909).

The Preference Shares rank in priority to the Ordinary, both as regards dividend and capital. Further, in the event of the Company being wound up, the Preference Shares will be entitled to one half of the surplus assets after the capital on the Ordinary Shares has been repaid.

**All the 7½ per cent. Cumulative Participating Preference Shares are being offered for Subscription,**

And are payable as follows: 2s. 6d. per Share on Application.

5s. 0d.	"	"	Allotment.
5s. 0d.	"	"	April 1, 1908.
5s. 0d.	"	"	June 1, 1908.
2s. 6d.	"	"	August 1, 1908.

Interest at the rate of 5 per cent per annum will be allowed on amounts prepaid.

**Directors.**

JOHN CHARLES HAMILTON GREIG (*Chairman*), The Mount, Westerham, Kent, Coal Factor.  
 †GUSTAVE HENRY BONAS, Ringrone, Woking, Surrey, and Kimberley, Cape Colony, Merchant.  
 FREDERICK JAMES DUNDAS, Hall Gate, Doncaster, Director of Dalton Main Collieries, Limited.  
 ALPHONSE DAVID JOSEPH, 28 Holborn Viaduct, E.C., of Messrs. Joseph Brothers, Diamond Merchants.  
 HON. JOHN GEORGE MAYDON, M.L.A., Netherley, Pietermaritzburg, lately Minister of Railways and Harbours, Natal.  
 HERBERT CECIL PELLY, Kentwins, Nutfield, Surrey, Director of Wm. France Fenwick & Co., Limited.

† Being the only Director interested in the promotion of the Company, will join the Board after Allotment.

**Bankers.**

BARCLAY & COMPANY, LTD., 54 Lombard Street, London, E.C., and Branches.  
 BANK OF AFRICA, LTD., 113 Cannon Street, London, E.C., and Natal.

**Solicitors for the Company.**

GUEDALLA &amp; CROSS, Winchester House, Old Broad Street, London, E.C.

**Auditors.**

DELOITTE, PLENDER, GRIFFITHS &amp; CO., London and South Africa.

**Brokers.**

H. VIGNE & SONS, 2 Tokenhouse Buildings, E.C., and Stock Exchange, London.  
 WISE, SPEKE & CO., 28 Collingwood Street, and Stock Exchange, Newcastle-on-Tyne.  
 SELBY & CO., Market Place Buildings, and Stock Exchange, Sheffield.

**Consulting Engineers.**

RAILWAY: PAULING & CO., LTD., 26 Victoria Street, London, S.W., and JAMES BUTLER, Ass.M.I.C.E., Natal.  
 COLLIERY: C. E. RHODES & SON, Civil and Mining Engineers, Rotherham, Yorkshire.  
 IRON AND MANGANESE: W. SELKIRK, F.G.S., M.I.M.M., 34 Clement's Lane, London, E.C.

**Secretary and Registered Offices (*pro tem.*).**

JOSEPH PATTINSON, 39 Old Broad Street, London, E.C.

The full Prospectus will be advertised early next week. Copies of the Prospectus with forms of application can be obtained from the Company's Bankers, Brokers, and at the Offices of the Company.

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